

THE SCHOOL REVIEW

A JOURNAL OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

VOLUME XLVI * NOVEMBER 1938 * NUMBER 9

Educational News and Editorial Comment

*

APPRAISING THE NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION

THE first of the nineteen staff reports of the Advisory Committee on Education to see its way into print is the report on the National Youth Administration (Staff Study Number 13). It bears the title *The National Youth Administration*, is credited to Palmer O. Johnson and Oswald L. Harvey, and contains a brief introduction by Doak S. Campbell. Following a chapter on "The Youth Problem" are chapters descriptive of the organization and its "programs" under the captions "Nature and Scope of the National Youth Administration," "The Student Aid Program," "The Work Projects Program," and "Other Programs" (namely, vocational guidance and placement, apprentice training, and educational camps for unemployed women). The concluding chapter is devoted to an "Evaluation of the Contributions of the National Youth Administration." All persons who have concern for the nation's youth should read the full report of something more than a hundred pages. We cannot undertake to digest the publication adequately in space available here, although we illustrate its importance by drawing on portions of the concluding chapter.

Appraisal is made in terms of the contributions of the Youth Administration and its programs to (1) the solution of the relief problem; (2) the establishment, development, and extension of edu-

cational concepts and policies; (3) the solution of urgent problems of youth; (4) co-operative activity in local communities; and (5) federal administrative policy.

Under the first of these respects the report estimates that in November, 1937, there were approximately 2,000,000 persons eighteen to twenty-four years of age in the "totally unemployed or employed on emergency work" category, of whom approximately 400,000 were in "emergency work." In the same month the National Youth Administration employed approximately 122,000 youth of these ages on work projects. The organization "thus provided for at least one-twentieth of all youth aged eighteen to twenty-four who were totally unemployed or on emergency work, and about one-fourth of those on emergency (relief) work."

The following paragraph contains appraisal of the policies in relief to youth.

By adhering to accepted desirable policies relating to the minimum age for the participation of youth in gainful employment, it is probable that the National Youth Administration has helped to raise the level of wages and to lengthen the period of formal educational experience. By employing youth on public projects, the Youth Administration has helped to reduce pressure on the labor market and competition for jobs among adult workers. At the same time, it has provided youth with guidance, experience, and training against the time that they will join the ranks of adult applicants for employment.

On the contribution to educational concepts and policies the report has the following to say.

As an emergency agency, flexible in its administration and with relatively large available funds, the National Youth Administration has been able to experiment in educational programs which, under ordinary circumstances, would have received little consideration by regular agencies of government, and which even today are not fully recognized by the majority of educators.

Through the extension of educational opportunities to the underprivileged, the Youth Administration has uncovered a reservoir of competent youth desirous of continued education for whom almost no provision has been made in the past. It has demonstrated the possibility of providing educational opportunities at small cost which have proved of considerable advantage to the youth and to the institutions involved. And, by providing merely the essentials for the maintenance of youth, it has increased school and college enrolments by 300,000 to 400,000 without sacrificing quality to quantity. . . .

Although the nominal aim of the National Youth Administration has been to serve as a relief agency, it has actually fulfilled an educational function as well.

Because relief was the primary objective, the educational policy of the Youth Administration has of necessity been of a temporizing and exigent nature. Had the educational function been considered as of primary rather than of secondary importance, it is not unlikely that the policies and programs here reported would have been considerably altered. To the conflicting practices inevitably resultant from this confusion concerning the relative importance of the functions of relief and education may in large measure be attributed many of the apparent discrepancies and inconsistencies in the present program.

The report unequivocally affirms the contribution of the Youth Administration toward solutions of urgent problems of youth.

If there is today a "lost generation" of youth lacking work experience, lacking guidance, abandoned by the school, and disowned by industry, and if, as is often claimed, the new social and economic status of youth resultant from changes in the age composition of the population calls for national leadership in meeting the problems of youth, then it must be conceded that in large measure the National Youth Administration has contributed significantly toward the solution of these problems.

Without doubt the depression adversely affected the morale of youth. But by providing youth with an articulate agency for the expression of their needs and a focal point of direct action in meeting them, the National Youth Administration has helped to restore their morale. The indictment that actual achievement has failed to measure up to the demand for service becomes, therefore, a criticism not of inadequacy in function so much as of limitations in application. Through each of its major programs the National Youth Administration has provided youth with facilities for continued education, work experience, practical guidance, and, so far as possible, placement in employment in private industry. There is much to indicate that the morale and health of youth participating in student aid and work projects employment have improved.

We quote in full the statements in appraisal of the contributions toward encouragement of co-operative activity in local communities and toward federal administrative policy.

Liberal funds and a definite program have made it possible for the National Youth Administration to draw together in effective co-operation the frequently dissident and often individually impotent local agencies which exist in many communities. Under the leadership of the National Youth Administration and its advisory committees, of which these agencies are now constituent members, many communities have learned the advantage of united effort. It is not unreasonable to assume that some of the progress thus achieved will endure. Nor is the achievement limited to local communities. The co-ordination of interested agencies, both public and private, has been of such a nature that it may well be said that the youth program of today is limited to no geographical or political boundaries but is a part of the national life.

In demonstrating what concerted action can accomplish on behalf of youth the National Youth Administration has convinced many local communities that it is possible for them to employ, train, and direct their youth, and that, given proper direction and wise planning, the contributions made by the youth thus engaged are often of real and lasting value. In several instances, at their own expense, communities have taken over the responsibility and administration of programs initiated by the National Youth Administration.

The National Youth Administration has co-operated successfully with private as well as public agencies, in groups and individually. Its success in conducting a nation-wide enterprise through a system of decentralized control probably has had significant bearing on the relationship between federal and state governments in educational matters. By extending aid to individuals rather than to institutions or agencies, it has avoided the implications of interference with the authority of local units. At the same time, it has demonstrated not only that co-operative programs between agencies at different levels of control can be effective, but also that such programs offer possibilities of substantial economies in administration.

Copies of the report may be purchased for fifteen cents from the Superintendent of Documents in Washington. Persons interested in a complete list of the staff studies made for the Advisory Committee on Education will find it on page 121 of this report. Announcement has been made that all the studies will be issued by the end of this calendar year.

THE STUDENT-AID PROGRAM FOR 1938-39

REFERENCE to the National Youth Administration in the foregoing item gives special pertinence to a statement concerning its student-aid program for 1938-39. An announcement by Aubrey Williams, executive director of the organization, reports the approval of allocations totaling \$21,750,000 to finance this program for the current fiscal year. Of this amount, \$9,836,407 has been allotted to high-school student aid and \$11,913,593 to college and graduate aid. Participating in the program are more than 1,600 colleges and universities and approximately 24,000 "high schools and secondary educational institutions." The announcement predicts that "the funds will provide part-time jobs for more than 350,000 needy students of both sexes who otherwise would be unable to enter or remain in school."

Further description of the program is contained in the following excerpts from the full announcement.

N.Y.A. students are employed in such jobs as community service, clerical and office work, library, museum and laboratory assistance, special research, the conducting of forums, adult-education classes and other civic activities, construction projects, maintenance of equipment, care of grounds, etc., the employment in each instance being directly connected with the particular school or college.

Employment in the student-aid program is limited to boys and girls between the ages of sixteen and twenty-four, inclusive. . . .

Students participating in the school aid program may not earn more than \$6.00 each per month. The average payment is considerably below this maximum. During last April, when N.Y.A. enrolment was at its peak for the school year recently closed, 232,048 students in 23,958 high schools, received an average payment each of \$4.42 for the month.

The payment to all students in institutions receiving college and graduate aid is limited to an average of \$15 per month each for the academic year, although this average may be exceeded if there are sufficient accumulated funds from previous months' quotas. The maximum which may be paid in any one month to a student receiving college aid, however, is \$20.

A student receiving graduate aid may be paid a maximum of \$40 in any one month, provided the average for graduate students as a group shall not exceed \$30 per month over the academic year. During April of last year, 98,676 N.Y.A. students in 1,633 colleges and universities received an average monthly wage each, of \$11.93. The average wage during the same month for 2,596 graduate students in 153 graduate schools was \$18.40 each.

The hourly wage rates for N.Y.A. students are the same as those usually prevailing in the respective institutions or localities for the same type of work. The maximum hours for high-school N.Y.A. students are seven per day on non-school days, three on school days, and twenty per week. The maximum for those in colleges and graduate schools is eight per day and thirty per week, although during vacation periods within the academic year, the weekly maximum of thirty hours is raised to forty. The student-aid program as a whole is almost equally divided between boys and girls. The latter somewhat outnumber the boys in the high-school program, and the men are in a slight majority in the college and graduate aid program.

ANOTHER ADJUSTMENT PROGRAM FOR UNIVERSITY FRESHMEN

UNDER the headline "School-College Shift Made Easy," the *New York Sun*, in an issue dated shortly before the opening of schools, described an adjustment program put into operation this autumn in the University of Oklahoma. Following is the description as published.

A program of remedial or tutoring courses to make easy the transition between high-school and college studies will be instituted this fall at the University of Oklahoma.

Freshmen whose placement tests show them deficient in English, mathematics or social science will enrol in the special one-term remedial courses.

Students will gain no credit from the course toward a diploma, but in their second semester will be allowed to take regular Freshman courses in the subject, secure in the knowledge that their chances of passing are good, according to President W. B. Bizzell.

In the tutoring classes, the Freshmen will learn to take lecture notes, to study, and to adjust themselves to their new environment. Reading tests will be given to weed out poor readers for special instruction.

Freshmen who rank low on two of the three placement tests given before entrance will not be permitted to join any particular college or school of the university, although they will be eligible for all campus activities. Freshmen who fail in one of the placement tests may enrol in any of the University's schools and colleges but must remedy their deficiency in a tutoring class.

Persons conversant with what is being done in adjusting Freshmen to college and university work, and this work to Freshmen, will identify few, if any, new elements in this particular program although they may see some novelty in the combination of arrangements. The program is, nevertheless, illustrative of a marked trend toward improving articulation of high school and college. We venture the prediction that, in time, the authorities in Oklahoma will give up the effort at hair-splitting distinctions between high-school and college work and will grant credit for the remedial courses.

RECENT USEFUL PUBLICATIONS OF THE OFFICE OF EDUCATION

A BULLETIN of recent publication by the United States Office of Education which reports on a significant movement in education is *Curriculum Laboratories and Divisions* (Bulletin No. 7, 1938) by Bernice E. Leary, senior specialist in elementary education. Its concern is the "organization and functions" of these curriculum laboratories and divisions in city school systems, higher institutions, and state departments of education. Information is reported concerning more than a hundred such agencies, sixty-one in city systems, thirty-five in higher institutions, and eleven in state departments. The recency of the movement is shown in the fact that almost ninety of the agencies have been established since 1927. The bulletin will be helpful to persons who wish to acquaint themselves with the extent and the nature of the movement or who contemplate setting up such agencies.

Pamphlet Number 83, entitled *Handbook for Compiling Age-Grade-Progress Statistics*, by David Segel, educational consultant and specialist in tests and measurements, puts in compact form all directions and tables needed for this essential aspect of pupil accounting. The handbook has been prepared to apply to both elementary-school and high-school grades.

At hand also are two Vocational Education Bulletins, namely, Number 192, *Training for the Public-Service Occupations* by Jerry R. Hawke, special agent in trade and industrial education, and Number 193, *Training for the Painting and Decorating Trade* by L. G. Stier, vice-principal of the Frank Wiggins Trade School in Los Angeles, on leave for a period to prepare the report. The former of this pair deals with an occupational area until now somewhat neglected as judged by the need for training in the vocations represented. Number 193 is concerned with an older group of occupations. It goes beyond many earlier publications prepared under the auspices of the federal authority in vocational education in that it does not stop with a job analysis and related information but includes also some consideration of opportunities for employment in the field, health and safety hints, and apprenticeship plans.

The prices asked by the Superintendent of Documents in Washington for these four publications are, respectively, ten, ten, twenty, and thirty-five cents.

RECORDS OF ADVANCE IN ADULT EDUCATION

THE Tennessee Valley Authority and its activities have been much in the public mind. Owing to economic and personal controversies, these aspects have had the emphasis of attention, and much less has been said of the social and the educational phases of this great project. Through the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky, there is now available a partial record of the educational developments under the Authority. The portion of the educational program described and interpreted is indicated in the title of the bulletin which has been issued by the bureau: *Adult Education—A Part of a Total Educational Program*. The chapters of the bulletin have been prepared by members of the educational staff of the Authority. Four chapters have been contributed by Maurice

F. Seay, formerly in charge of the program and now director of the Bureau of School Service of the University of Kentucky. These chapters describe the Tennessee Valley and the T.V.A.; set forth the development of the educational program for employes and children; indicate the principles of the educational program developed; and outline the plan of organization, supervision, and co-ordination. Other chapters, written by the persons responsible for the portions of the program described, have to do with the education of children, training opportunities for the professional staff of the Authority employed in the valley, apprentice and job training for the craft workers, library service, recreation service, negro training, and general adult education.

An introduction by President Frank L. McVey of the University of Kentucky affords a most discerning interpretation of the educational developments of the valley. We take the liberty of quoting excerpts of this introduction.

The reading of the law establishing the Tennessee Valley Authority brings out flood control, navigation, hydro-electric power, and conservation of soils. These are inherent in the program, but down deep in the plan is a social interest that looks to the maintenance of the American way and the creation of additional opportunities for a better life in the area. To do this requires the setting-up of better standards of living which can be maintained in an area where labor and industry may receive adequate rewards.

An undertaking the size of this Valley project, that has been under way since 1933, calls for a large organization and the employment of thousands of men and women. When great engineering enterprises have been undertaken in the past, very little attention has been paid to the social and educational needs of the people brought to the sites of the projects. The Authority in charge of this enterprise envisions not only an economic program but a social one as well.

My interest in the papers brought together in this bulletin arises out of the fact that one of the best things the T.V.A. has done and one to which little attention has been given is the educational program which it has set up. If this program were the ordinary one that is typical of town or country school systems, I should not be much interested, but what has been done, described in this bulletin, is a real contribution to education. I say that because the tendency of any system, educational or otherwise, is to harden and to develop routine methods. Administration gathers a great deal of importance and is quite likely to become an end. Various types of instruction are regarded as essential, and those who give it feel that they have vested interests that must be protected. Modification of procedure or even techniques is brought to pass but slowly. The

teacher trained in an older regime does not like the new techniques that are crying out to be tried. . . . The fact that the Authority did not follow conventional procedures in working out an educational and recreational program has been of great benefit, not only to the Authority and the people in the area, but the experience gained has done much for any administrator, teacher, and citizen who is interested in education. Hence this bulletin.

The Authority was faced with a great problem in its various educational needs that varied with groups and communities. What was the goal to be attained? Could the program provided be a continuous one? More than that, the Authority appears to have been wise enough to see that any program imposed from above was bound to fail and that any program might be strangled in the meshes of administrative units. The supposed gap between pupil and adult was bridged by unifying the whole educational process undertaken by the Authority. The program must be standard enough to meet the eyes of skeptics and so flexible as to use experience gained in one place to aid a program somewhere else. I think that the Authority has accomplished this. Certainly the testimony set forth in these pages points to results that might have been regarded as impossible in so short a time.

How was this done? First, by providing capable and effective leadership for the whole program; second, by unifying plans for the use of equipment and staff; third, by staggering programs so as to utilize staffs and equipment to the fullest advantage; and fourth, through a central agency keeping the various educational programs in contact with each other. The philosophy behind the educational program is discussed in chapter iii of this bulletin. Nevertheless, I am enumerating briefly the basic educational principles given, since they must be a part of the educational program. These are: education is the composite of all the experiences of an individual; education is a continuous process, and in practice it must be based upon the problems, needs, and interests of those for whom it is planned; educational activities can be made more acceptable and useful by the democratic method, and through that method the real needs of a people can be more readily met; finally, any effective program must possess great flexibility. . . .

In much of the discussion of adult education as it appears in periodicals and groups, it is evident that the writers are thinking of something separate from the general educational process. For instance, there is supposed to be a gap between pupil and adult, whereas, there is a real unification needed in the process of education. As an example of this, the in-service training program was only reasonably successful at first but when supplemented later by general adult education the advance made by the trainees was much more satisfactory. Library facilities were carried to the men on jobs and the selection of books fitted to the needs of the employees as those needs became apparent. The system of internships by which outstanding students learn by practice and experience the problems they are likely to face shows highly satisfactory results. The emphasis given to internships should open the way to its use more extensively elsewhere.

Graduate schools could learn a good deal from the experience of the Authority and thus help remove the stigma often laid on graduate students that they have no practical knowledge of field or office methods and practices.

The educational program of the Authority has resulted in a greater understanding by local communities and governing boards of the possibilities of co-operation and of the varying needs of different groups and how these groups can be given more education by the co-ordination of activities. Education as a continuous process no longer remains as a theory but becomes the recognized method of approaching the educational problems.

Another record of advance in adult education is afforded in a bulletin, *Adult Education*, published as advance pages of the *Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36* (Bulletin No. 2, 1937) by the United States Office of Education. The bulletin is credited to Maris M. Proffitt, educational consultant in the Office, and describes recent diverse developments in this area of education. The broadening scope of the area is suggested by many of the headings, such as "Emergency Education Program," "Education in the C.C.C. Camps," "Vocational Education for Adults," "Civilian Rehabilitation," "Parent Education," "University Extension," and "Adult Civic Education through Public Forums." The Superintendent of Documents in Washington asks ten cents for copies of this bulletin.

NATIONAL HEADQUARTERS AND AN EXECUTIVE SECRETARY FOR THE JUNIOR COLLEGES

GROWING strength of the junior-college movement is reflected in a reorganization of the American Association of Junior Colleges which involves, among other steps forward, the establishment of a national headquarters (at 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.) and the appointment of the first executive secretary of the organization. The new secretary is Walter Crosby Eells, well known in junior-college circles and, until recently, professor of education in Stanford University. During the past three years he has been on leave of absence from the University to serve as co-ordinator of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Under the former arrangements the secretaryship of the Association of Junior Colleges had been held since 1922 by Dean Doak S. Campbell, of George Peabody College for Teachers. During the sixteen-year pe-

riod of his incumbency the number of junior colleges increased from approximately 200 to 553 institutions in 44 states.

HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

THE items for our "Here and There" are descriptive of practices in high schools in six widely scattered states. They are concerned with a course in radio and motion pictures, a novel systematization of the extra-curriculum, six-man football, a "stamp tax" for pupil activities, a garden exchange, a regional high school, and special guidance for Seniors.

A credit course in radio and the motion picture Arthur Stenius, of Western High School in Detroit, Michigan, has developed an academic course in radio and motion pictures. It may be recalled that Mr. Stenius supplied the information for an item on the school newsreel at Western High School which was reported in this feature just a year ago. The course, which is offered as an elective, yields the same credit as courses in English or science. It does not aim to introduce pupils to these two fields from a vocational standpoint; rather, the aim is to impart general knowledge concerning the two industries—to show them as the cultural influences that they represent, to indicate their magnitude as industries, and to give some understanding of the manner in which work in the various phases of these industries is carried on. The outline of the course is naturally in two main divisions. The division concerned with radio is devoted to the "physical science behind the radio," the development of radio, broadcasting (the radio station, types of broadcasts, types of programs), international radio, uses of radio (advertising, aviation, education, entertainment, etc.), government administration of radio, short-wave radio, television, and radio as a vocation. Sections of the division dealing with motion pictures are the "physical science behind motion pictures," the development of motion pictures, producing a motion picture (the studio, on location, on set, process-shooting, sound-recording, the story, and distribution), types of productions (features, shorts, newsreels, animated cartoons, commercial films, etc.), and motion pictures as a vocation.

Because no textbook could be found which was in any way adequate, the effort was made to see that the materials gathered for reference were as live as possible. Correspondence was carried on directly with individual radio stations and large broadcasting chains. A similar procedure was followed in the motion-picture industry. There is at hand now for the course actual materials from the industries. For example, pupils have at their disposal coverage maps, advertising rate cards, and sales surveys when working on units concerned with audience responses, coverage, and the like. In addition to these materials, there is at hand the school's visual and radio equipment. Pupils will also be given actual contact with materials, equipment, and methods used through trips to radio stations and motion-picture studios. The school is fortunate that the largest producers of motion pictures of a commercial nature are located in Detroit.

Unit courses in place of the extra-curriculum In the Vernon L. Davey Junior High School of East Orange, New Jersey, of which William H. Smith is principal, there are no clubs. Instead, two fifty-minute periods each day are set aside in which unit courses, "disconnected with the curriculum," are given. The year is divided into five intervals of seven weeks each, thereby making available thirty-five meetings in each interval. In each interval a new arrangement of courses is offered, and the whole plan gives the pupil the opportunity to take ten different unit courses during a school year. Credit is not given for these courses, and no marks are assigned. Teachers and pupils are free to carry on the work as they please. The offering of courses includes art, music, social dancing, archery, shop, cooking, chess, etc.

Six-man football suitable for the small high school Royal D. Miller, principal of schools at Poynette, Wisconsin, reports in the *Wisconsin Journal of Education* that a number of small high schools last year inaugurated six-man football. Besides Poynette, the list of high schools includes Gillett, Coleman, Lena, Darien, Peshtigo, Crivitz, Williams Bay, Clinton, Cambria, and Foxlake. The advantages of this game over the eleven-man con-

test lie, first, in the use of fewer men. It belongs, according to Principal Miller, to the small high school of fewer than two hundred pupils. In point of fact, the average number of boys in the high schools playing the game last year was smaller than forty. Second, the initial cost is an important item. In some instances the game was placed in operation for a hundred dollars. Most schools can easily equip fourteen boys for two hundred dollars. He reports that four small high schools in southwestern Nebraska tried six-man football in 1934 and that Stephen Epler is credited with inventing it and giving it a trial in that state. It is estimated that more than a thousand high schools in the country played the game, and more than twenty thousand boys participated in it during the 1937 season.

Collecting activities dues by means of a stamp tax The activities program of the Nott Terrace High School in Schenectady, New York, of which E. O. Hoffman is principal, has several sources of revenue for the support of its program of pupils' activities, among them receipts from athletic contests, proceeds from the student store, and advertising in school paper and annual. The main source, however, is a "stamp tax"—a novel device for collecting the student-activities fee in small instalments. The plan is administered by the high-school treasurer, who is assisted by home-room treasurers designated by the home-room teachers. The tax system extends through twenty-seven weeks with ten-cent stamps for the first nine weeks and five-cent stamps for the remaining eighteen weeks.

Classes in biology conduct a garden exchange for the home gardeners Classes in biology in the Roosevelt High School of Oakland, California, of which G. E. Furbush is principal, conducted last spring what is called a "garden exchange." The description of the exchange has been submitted by Miss Ruth Wood, instructor in biology. Over a period of "a couple of weeks" pupils were "scurrying through the corridors," carrying packages "of a wide variety of sizes and shapes" containing plants. The project had been initiated in the spring a year before and was resumed last year at the request of pupils, who, with some of their

teachers, contributed the surplus supplies from their own yards for the use of others. Although it was planned to have the exchange continue through one week, the demand for materials so far exceeded the supply that it was necessary to lengthen the period. Thousands of flowering plants and shrubs were given away, and the idea has proved such a success that plans for an autumn garden exchange have been formulated. Many parents also have entered into this exchange, have sent plants to the school through pupils, and have received plants in exchange which were brought by other pupils.

A regional high school that is unique in its state The Jonathan Dayton Regional High School at Springfield, New Jersey, is reported by Supervising Principal Warren W. Halsey as "somewhat unique" in that it is the first attempt in the state in which several small communities have joined together to establish a high school. More than 600 pupils in the total enrolment of 815 last year were transported to and from school daily.

A special guidance program planned for Seniors H. D. Richardson, director of research in the Lake Forest High School, one of the two high schools of the Deerfield-Shields Township (Illinois) High School District, of which Richard L. Sandwick is superintendent, has prepared, for use in guiding Seniors, two bulletins, both of which aid in the emphasis placed on "vocational and college" guidance in that year. One of these bulletins is called "After High School—What?" It was prepared to bring to the attention of pupils the literature on vocations available through the library. In addition to a Foreword by the principal, Raymond Moore, the bulletin contains lists of references under the headings: "A Survey of the World's Work," "Books on Representative Occupations," "Pamphlets on Specific Occupations," "Getting a Job and Keeping It," and "Planning for Further Education and Training." The other bulletin, "Aids in Self-Analysis and Vocational Planning," is virtually a blank prepared as an aid to interviewing. Mr. Richardson has a half-hour interview with each Senior, and this

blank serves to prepare the pupil for, and to give direction to, the interview.

MORE PICTURED SCHOOL REPORTS

THE publication of profusely illustrated school reports, a practice on which comment has been made in previous issues of the *School Review*, continues. Among a number arriving in the editor's mail in recent weeks are four deserving special mention.

One has been received from New Rochelle, New York, where Herold C. Hunt is superintendent. In the Introduction Superintendent Hunt says: "In its title, *Living and Learning* defines the educational philosophy of the New Rochelle schools. Pictures—word and photographic—give it fuller meaning and explanation." *Good Citizens* is the name given to a somewhat smaller document issued by the Long Beach (California) system, of which Kenneth E. Oberholtzer is superintendent. Captions under which verbal and pictorial materials are introduced are "Reading, Writing, and Arithmetic," "Getting Acquainted with the World," "Special Talents," "Keeping Fit," "Vocational Preparation," "Young Citizens in a Democracy," "Worthy Parenthood," and "Modern Buildings." Superintendent Thomas H. Ford calls his annual report, which is the seventy-second in the Reading (Pennsylvania) school district, *Our Children and Their Schools*. Although brief, it seems comprehensive and is unquestionably informative. The report submitted by S. M. Stouffer, superintendent of schools in Wilmington, Delaware, carries on the cover the designation *Progress in Education in Wilmington, 1929-1937*. The interval represented is the period during which Superintendent Stouffer has been in charge of the system. Chapter titles are "Community Background," "Getting the Child to School," "Providing the Child with Experiences," "Selecting and Developing the Child's Teachers," "Providing the Child with a Good Physical Environment," "Organizing and Administering the Program," and "Financing the Program." This report contains proportionately more textual material than the first three mentioned. All are a far cry from the forbidding documents which superintendents and school boards issued to their patrons a generation ago.

WHO'S WHO FOR NOVEMBER

The authors of articles in the current issue PAUL H. HANUS, professor emeritus of Harvard University. PERCIVAL W. HUTSON, associate professor of education at the University of Pittsburgh. JOSEPH C. KEIFER, teacher of algebra and administrative assistant in Mount Lebanon High School, Mount Lebanon, Pennsylvania. MARJORIE R. CHAMPINE, visiting teacher at Marshall High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota. W. R. WIMBISH, principal of the Arlington High School, Arlington, Texas. H. M. LAFFERTY, assistant professor of education at the East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas. A. S. HANCOCK, head of the English department at Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey. GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER, dean of the School of Education at Stanford University. AUBREY E. HAAN, graduate student at Stanford University.

The writers of reviews in the current issue J. M. HUGHES, professor of education at Northwestern University. HARL R. DOUGLASS, head of the Department of Education at the University of North Carolina. WILLIAM G. BRINK, associate professor of education and assistant dean of the Graduate School at Northwestern University. HOWARD R. ANDERSON, assistant professor of education at Cornell University; chairman of Junior and Senior High School Social Studies Departments in the public schools of Ithaca, New York, and director of student teaching in cooperation with Cornell University. W. FRANCIS ENGLISH, principal of the Carrollton High School, Carrollton, Missouri.

REALISTIC TEACHING OF GOVERNMENT AND HOW TO GET IT

PAUL H. HANUS
Cambridge, Massachusetts

*

MALADMINISTRATION of public affairs is widely prevalent in our cities; it is common in our state governments; and it is not unknown in the national government. Some persons do not discriminate between democracy and the incompetent or the unfaithful administration of democracy; hence the existence among us of relatively small but menacing groups who advocate the overthrow of democratic government. Both maladministration and those menacing groups are due largely, if not chiefly, to long-standing uninformed public opinion—more specifically, to the failure of our schools to emphasize realistic, actually enlightening instruction in the social studies, particularly economics and government.

The contemporary quickened interest in the social studies is, therefore, encouraging. There is a demand for a more substantial time allotment for those studies in school programs and more effective teaching of them, although that may mean a lessened time allotment for some of the traditional studies, for example, Latin and mathematics.

Economics and government are interrelated, and the contention of this article—that teachers should be free to teach government increasingly on a fact-finding basis as the children mature—applies equally to the teaching of economics. The limits of a single paper suggest that I should confine myself to only one of those topics. Accordingly, in what follows I shall consider only the teaching of government and further limit the discussion to the teaching of government in the secondary schools.

Although it is hardly needed, I later present some evidence that the traditional and still prevalent teaching of government, even when accompanied by occasional visits to the city hall or to the

state house, is largely futile. At best and in general, such teaching serves only to make the textbook description of the framework of government somewhat concrete and yields some scrappy information about the use of that framework by government officials in action. To make textbook descriptions of the framework of government somewhat concrete is good so far as it goes; so is the occasional observation of the performances of public officials in action; but neither affords real information about how office-holders actually discharge their responsibilities and how they may, and often do, use their official power to promote selfish ends instead of public service. Thus most of the contemporary teaching of government fails to bring home to the pupils the contrast between good government and bad, between competent, disinterested office-holders and self-seeking or corrupt politicians.

This article is, accordingly, a plea for *realistic teaching of government*—such teaching as will impart to the pupils a strong and permanent *approval of good government* and a permanent *militant aversion to bad*. Does the contemporary teaching of government achieve that result? Here is some evidence that it does not.

A bulletin on *Improving Social Studies Instruction*,¹ published by the Research Division of the National Education Association, is the most recent study known to me in the field. It is particularly interesting because it is an endeavor to present a fair sampling of contemporary practice in all sections of the United States. The bulletin reports contemporary practices in the teaching of the social studies supplied by 1,764 teachers, 562 of them junior high school and 654 senior high school teachers, in cities having populations of 2,500 or more. Although the questionnaire method was used in obtaining the desired information, unusual care was taken by the participants; and I am taking most of the bulletin at its face value. All teachers answering the questionnaire were of "recognized ability who had been teaching at least two years in the school to which they are now assigned."²

¹ *Improving Social Studies Instruction*. Research Bulletin of the National Education Association, Vol. XV, No. 5. Washington: Research Division of the National Education Association, November, 1937.

² *Ibid.*, p. 189.

Referring the reader to the bulletin itself for details, I summarize certain information about the teaching of government taken from Tables 22-25. (1) "Politics-general," "Local politics," and "Communism" are the topics most frequently mentioned as "avoided" or "tactfully handled"; "Policies and practices of state and local government," about half as frequently as the topics just cited; "Fascism," somewhat less frequently; "State politics" and "Nazism," least frequently of the seven topics cited. (2) The percentages of teachers' opinions show that "Politics" is apparently the topic most likely to cause controversy; that is, it is the most "perilous" area. (3) The reason given most frequently for avoiding controversial topics is "Fear of outside pressure groups." (4) While from about two-fifths to about two-thirds of the teachers thought that various "Community aspects" deserve instruction, only from a fifth to a little more than half the teachers reported that the topics were receiving instruction.

In my judgment, local politics affords the very best area for realistic teaching of government, and state politics is a close second. Those topics should, therefore, be emphasized and never omitted, and "tactful" handling should never mean superficial or hesitant handling. Teachers must be set free to deal with those topics realistically without danger to themselves or to their superior officers. I intend to suggest a way to bring that about.

The bulletin reports illustrations of the tactful handling of controversial topics; and, if these illustrations are fairly representative of all the tactful teaching of controversial topics, including government, reported in this bulletin, that teaching merits strong approval. I find it difficult, however, to banish a doubt as to whether all teachers reporting tactful handling of topics actually handled them as well as described in the illustrations cited. Since I cannot examine the witnesses whose testimony is given in Table 22 and other tables in the bulletin, I find it difficult to avoid the conjecture that "tactfully handled" sometimes means superficially or even evasively handled. Such possible instances obviously belong in the "avoided" classification, and in what follows this caution concerning the meaning of "tactfully handled" should be borne in mind.

Is it not apparent, from the foregoing account of topics "avoided"

or "tactfully handled" and the principal reason given for avoidance or tentative teaching of those topics, that realistic teaching of government—teaching that comes to grips with actualities in political activities—while sometimes approximated, is not really achieved? Is it not also clear that such teaching will not be achieved until the fear of outside pressure groups is removed?

Meanwhile, lay opinion strongly approves realistic teaching of government. I quote from the bulletin:

... many laymen recognize controversial subjects as a necessary part of social-studies instruction. This statement is supported by a nation-wide survey made in 1936 by the American Institute of Public Opinion. Sixty-two per cent of those canvassed by the study were in favor of discussing all "isms" in the public schools. Similar results were obtained in 1936 by a poll of the members of the Commonwealth Club of California, a state-wide association of men organized as an impartial forum for the discussion of disputed questions. The vote on three questions was as follows:

"(1) Do you believe that there should be free and open discussion in the classroom on *all* controversial issues? Yes, 85.5 per cent; No, 14.5 per cent.

"(2) Do you believe that discussion of *all* sides of public issues is essential for education of youth in democracy? Yes, 92.0 per cent; No, 8.0 per cent.

"(3) Do you believe that teachers *as a group* can be relied upon to support the principle of democracy? Yes, 93.5 per cent; No, 6.5 per cent."¹

That realistic teaching of government is not only approved by laymen but is demanded by them appears from the following. I refer first to a short but trenchant article in the *Reader's Digest*. The author, Robert Littell, says, among other things:

I have asked scores of civics teachers what they were doing to acquaint their students with the workings of their own local government. Many said they would like to try that sort of teaching, but didn't dare. They complained that the "realistic teaching of government is resisted by politicians." In Chicago, authorities ordered civics teachers to stop an essay contest on the merits of the city-manager plan.

A few schools, however, are shining examples of what can be done when civics teachers roll up their sleeves.²

The author goes on to cite several such schools, including the schools of Detroit, where "every pupil above the fifth grade begins

¹ *Ibid.*, p. 225.

² Robert Littell, "These Schools Teach Practical Politics!" *Reader's Digest*, XXXI (July, 1937), 75.

studying election procedure as soon as school opens in September. Pupils register and vote, using regulation ballots, for the same candidates as their parents."

Next, I refer to two articles distributed by the National Self Government Committee. One of those, by C. C. Barnes,¹ head of the social sciences in the Detroit public schools, describes in some detail "the instruction on the meaning and methods of elections" in Detroit mentioned by Littell in the preceding reference. The other publication is a pamphlet entitled *Civics as It Should Be Taught*.² Although written with special reference to New York City, its suggestions have, *mutatis mutandis*, a much wider application, as will appear. This pamphlet opens with the question, "What use all this flag-saluting and teaching government as it is supposed to work, and never telling just how it does work, and how to break the Bosses' stranglehold?" Then, after commenting on known political abuses in New York City, the booklet deals with the following topics (for brevity, I give only the topics, adding a short explanatory statement after each, except the last, which explains itself): "The Merit System"—is it properly enforced? "Proportional Representation"—to secure full and fair representation of the various community groups; "The Grand Jury"—"often called the fountainhead of justice"; "The District Attorney of the County"—the importance of his office, with illustrations; "Current Events"—the necessity for adequate time for important topics; "Newspaper Reading"—and the value of a school newspaper for the presentation of opposing pupil views, the teacher acting as "moderator"; "Practical Politics"—not only to learn what are the duties of the several departments but also to learn how those duties are actually performed; "Suggested Reading"—eleven references, among them *The Insolence of Office—The Story of the Seabury Investigations*³ and *Tammany Hall*.⁴

¹ C. C. Barnes, "Teaching Political Citizenship in the Schools," *Social Studies*, XXVII (May, 1936), 315-19.

² *Civics as It Should Be Taught*. New York: National Self Government Committee (Richard Welling, Chairman, 80 Broadway).

³ William B. Northrop and John B. Northrop, *The Insolence of Office—The Story of the Seabury Investigations*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1932.

⁴ Gustavus Myers, *History of Tammany Hall*. New York: Boni & Liveright, 1917 (revised).

We have seen that realistic teaching of government, approved and demanded by laymen as well as by many teachers, is not now achieved. Accordingly I propose:

1. That teachers' organizations throughout the country give all possible encouragement, by resolutions and otherwise, to teachers who are approximating the realistic teaching of government.

2. That the framework of our democracy, the federal Constitution, be so taught as to make clear the underlying purposes of that document. Such teaching should include emphasis on the contrast between democracy and nondemocratic forms of government, particularly fascism, nazism, and communism. We have seen that it is sometimes possible to teach communism and other issues "tactfully," even today. We must, however, secure conditions that will make possible everywhere thorough teaching of such contrasting forms of government and that will, I hope, create a demand for such teaching. (I cannot refrain, however, from reminding the reader that, when vaccination was studied, the practice became well-nigh universal; that, when the Copernican system was studied, it displaced the erroneous Ptolemaic system; and that, when the witchcraft that bothered our ancestors was studied, it disappeared.) When the federal Constitution and the corresponding framework of state or local government are studied in the manner suggested and when, later, actual government is studied (as suggested below), the defects of maladministration of whatever sort will be recognized as the undermining and the menacing influences that they are, and the first steps will have been taken to develop in the oncoming generation that permanent approval of good government and permanent aversion to bad which are essential to the promotion of progress and to the stability of our democratic society.

3. That steps be taken as soon as possible to promote the prevalence of realistic teaching of government throughout the country without subjecting competent teachers and school officers to impairment of reputation or to loss of their jobs.

A single illustration will suffice to explain what realistic teaching of government—teaching that comes to grips with the actualities of political activities—means to me, although that meaning may be

clear enough from what has already been said. Suppose that in a senior high school the topic to be studied is "The Duties of the Departments of the City Government." The teacher might divide his class into groups, as many as there are departments. He would then assign to each group the task of finding out what are the duties of one department and require the group to report its findings to the class for appropriate consideration, that is, for information and clarifying discussion. Later, he would require each group to get information about how the duties of the department it had studied are actually performed and to report its findings to the class for consideration, as before. With the growing maturity of the pupils such a procedure would be increasingly desirable and profitable.

Obviously the teacher's responsibility in such a procedure is to make sure that the pupils secure and report facts, and facts only (a serious continuing responsibility), and to steer the classroom discussions so that the pupils assimilate the facts, not accepting gossip or more or less vague notions about the facts. Of course, such a responsibility cannot be discharged by an immature or an inadequately trained teacher, or by a teacher lacking patience and a judicial temperament, or by a teacher otherwise unfitted for such a task of leadership. Teachers possessing the necessary scholarship and technical training and the equally important personal qualities are already in service, and more will be found and appointed once the leaders of our profession and the leaders of the lay public realize that they are indispensable.

My second and third proposals may be regarded by many as impractical. I beg you to bear with me while I try to show that they are practical. I do not cherish illusions about them; I know they cannot be carried out immediately. To put them into effect will require the cultivation of an organized public interest and that may take time, say a year or two.

If, however, at first, only a small group of teachers and laymen in a single state were convinced, as I am, that the realistic teaching of government is of vital importance to individual and social welfare—to our democracy—and if that group were wisely persistent in advocacy, we might hope for organized favorable public opinion lead-

ing to effective action in a relatively short time. Just that happened some years ago in my state. An important addition to the public-school system was adopted in the face of much initial opposition. I refer to public vocational education (trade and agricultural education) for boys and girls. That adoption was accomplished in less than three years. Such vocational education is now well established, not only in Massachusetts, but in other states.

There must be teachers and school officers in every state whose genuine patriotism and professional insight and interest could lead them to persuade a group of laymen (it need not be a large group, at first) to undertake, either with or without the active co-operation of the state department of education, a vigorous campaign for realistic teaching of government throughout the state.

When such a group of laymen is at work, its members will press for legislation (1) permitting the realistic teaching of government throughout the state; (2) specifying that only teachers having the requisite qualifications shall be appointed to teach government (of course, school boards must hold their superintendents responsible for finding and nominating such teachers for appointment); and (3) providing for making this permissive law and its implications known to the communities of the state and for continuing, incidentally but actively, the propaganda that led to the demand for the law. The responsibility for making the law known and for continuing the propaganda would naturally devolve on the state department of education; but, if that department is not actively interested in the new law, then it must fall on a special commission to be appointed by the governor to serve, say, for three to five years.

Since we have reason to believe that the great majority of citizens are in favor of realistic teaching of government, the campaign for such legislation as has been proposed is likely to succeed, but not without opposition. Opposition may be expected to develop from three sources: (1) from incompetent or corrupt office-holders and other self-seeking politicians (for obvious reasons); (2) from citizens who might honestly believe that senior high school pupils are too immature to participate, with profit to themselves and the community, in the activities that realistic teaching of government in-

volves; and (3) from citizens who fear that realistic teaching of government might be intrusted to teachers who would clandestinely influence their pupils in favor of some nondemocratic "ism" to which the teachers themselves are secretly devoted. I have space for only brief statements in reply to this opposition.

It is evident that office-holders and other politicians are not likely to oppose such legislation on the ground that they do not want their performances studied and made known to all. On the contrary, they will allege that they are proud of their records, but they are likely to do their best to reinforce the opposing arguments of the other two groups.

Opposition based on the alleged immaturity of the pupils is fallacious. In my judgment, the maturity of senior high school pupils, "maturity" meaning the capacity to understand and to do their best to discharge serious responsibilities, has been generally underestimated. Observation of high-school pupils and my experience as a high-school principal convinced me long ago that the alleged immaturity of senior high school pupils cannot justly be urged as a barrier to realistic teaching of government.

As to teachers who might clandestinely try to indoctrinate the pupils with some undemocratic "ism," I say with assurance that we need not fear them. Competent teachers as a group belong to the more intelligent and thoughtful citizens who are least likely to be enamored of fascism, naziism, or communism. They may be counted on to regard with justifiable aversion the militarism and the suppression of individual initiative and independence of action to which those "isms" are committed. Any propaganda that emanates from teachers will naturally be in favor of democracy and good government. That is not only justifiable but desirable. A person who was known to have embraced fascism, naziism, or communism could not be appointed to teach in our schools. If such a person had successfully concealed his adherence to an obnoxious political faith and were appointed, his political belief would soon become known to the other teachers and could not escape the sharpened intelligence of a class of truth-seeking youngsters. Inevitable dismissal would follow soon after appointment. However, such a case would be so rare, as I have already suggested, as to be negligible.

A law that permits also invites. May we not expect that some alert and far-seeing school boards will avail themselves of such a legalized procedure—a procedure that they would not adopt without legal sanction owing to the existence of outside pressure groups in their communities?

This article is plainly an appeal to members of the teaching profession for *action*. They are asked to take the lead in an endeavor to secure an urgently needed and, under present conditions, unattainable improvement in the teaching of government. Failure to act will permit the propaganda of Fascists and Communists to continue unchecked; and what that propaganda may accomplish during a term of years none of us can imagine without grave concern.

SCHEDULES OF JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL PUPILS

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

University of Pittsburgh

JOSEPH C. KEIFER

Mount Lebanon High School, Mount Lebanon, Pennsylvania

*

THE PROBLEM OF SCHEDULE-MAKING

THE making of a schedule is one of the principal's most difficult problems. Essentially it calls for a time arrangement of the activities of the school which will give each pupil the educational opportunities that he should have, which will utilize adequately the time of each teacher (his teaching specialties being given consideration), and which will employ to the best advantage the facilities of the school building and equipment. The difficulties of this task are enhanced by the dynamic character of the curriculum. Old subjects are evolving; new subjects are entering; and some subjects are, or ought to be, passing out. Schedule-making is thus conditioned by curriculum-making, and, if decisions concerning the elements of the curriculum, their grade placement, and the time allotted to each are arrived at by some person unconnected with the problem of the schedule, difficulties are likely to be created unnecessarily.

Schedule-making ought not to be a mere juggling of elements until somehow or other they are fitted together. It ought to be performed with a view to establishing optimum learning conditions for the pupil. Just as in the daily round of the adult there is profit in the careful arranging of one's duties, so with the pupil there are advantages to be realized from thoughtful ordering of his activity. As pointed out by Book, "Each student and worker should make it a point to form a definite time and place habit for work. . . . When such a habit has been formed, all the surrounding stimuli will soon come to suggest or even help to elicit the particular responses which the student desires to make, such as complete concentration upon his work or continued application to his tasks until they are fin-

ished."¹ Observance of these principles in schedule-making calls for the arrangement of activities in a simple, regular cycle. In senior and four-year high schools, schedules typically provide meetings every day in the week for most classes, each class meeting at the same time every day. Realizing that such marked regularity frequently does not prevail in the schedules of junior high school pupils, the writers undertook the investigation herein reported for the purpose of obtaining some exact information on the situation in a small sampling of junior high schools.

DATA EMPLOYED

From twenty-four junior high schools in third-class school districts near Pittsburgh, the necessary data were obtained by personal visitation. The enrolments of the schools ranged from approximately 300 to 1,500, averaging 720. The individual schedule cards of ten pupils in each grade of each school were selected at random, and from these cards the following data were tabulated: (1) the number of times the various classes met a week, (2) the time arrangement followed in the scheduling of each class, and (3) the number of study periods a week.

FINDINGS

Number of periods classes meet.—To present for each grade the data regarding the number of periods a week for which classes are scheduled in each of the various subjects is scarcely possible within the limits of this article. Furthermore, it is not necessary. The data for a single grade will give a representative picture. Accordingly Table 1 is presented, showing the subjects taught in Grade VIII, the number of schools in which each subject is taught, and for each subject a percentage distribution of the schools according to the number of periods a week that the subject is scheduled. The reader will note that English and mathematics are scheduled five times a week in a majority of the schools and that, of the subjects taught in ten or more schools, history, geography, junior business training, and general science are usually taught either four or five periods a week. On the other hand, of the subjects taught in ten or more of

¹ William F. Book, *Learning How To Study and Work Effectively*, p. 288. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1926.

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF TWENTY-FOUR JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOLS
ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF PERIODS A WEEK
EIGHTH-GRADE SUBJECTS ARE TAUGHT

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS TEACHING SUBJECT	PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS SCHEDULING SUBJECT						
		One Period	Two Periods	Three Periods	Four Periods	Five Periods	One Double Period	Total
English	23				30.4	69.6		100.0
Mathematics	23				47.8	52.2		100.0
Home economics	22	18.2 ^a	40.9			4.3 ^b	36.4 ^c	100.0
Music	21	90.5	4.8		4.8 ^d			100.1
Gymnasium	20	50.0	50.0					100.0
History	20		5.0	5.0	60.0	30.0		100.0
Art	19	84.2	15.8					100.0
Shop	19	10.5 ^{a,e}	52.6 ^f				36.8 ^e	99.9
Geography	16			18.8	37.5	43.8		100.1
Health	16	87.5	12.5					100.0
Junior business training	12		16.7	16.7	41.7	25.0 ^g		100.1
General science	10		30.0		70.0			100.0
Guidance	9	88.9	11.1					100.0
Latin	8		12.5	25.0	25.0	37.5 ^g		100.0
Mechanical drawing	8	50.1 ^e	37.5 ^f				12.5	100.1
Writing	7	57.1	28.6 ^h		14.3 ^d			100.0
Civics	6				50.0	50.0		100.0
Literature	4		25.0	25.0	50.0 ⁱ			100.0
Spelling	4	25.0	25.0		50.0 ^d			100.0
French	3			33.3	33.3	33.3		99.9
Swimming	3	100.0						100.0
Foreign languages	2			50.0	50.0			100.0
Typewriting	2	50.0				50.0 ^g		100.0
Library	2	100.0						100.0
Reading	2		100.0					100.0
Algebra	1				100.0			100.0
Commercial mathematics	1				100.0			100.0
Public speaking	1		100.0					100.0
Religion	1	100.0						100.0
Number of school-subjects	285	89	53	11	63	53	16
Percentage of school-subjects		31.2	18.6	3.9	22.1	18.6	5.6	100.0

a) One class meets for three periods on one day a week.

b) One class meets for a twelve-week period.

c) One class meets once every two weeks.

d) One class meets for a twenty-minute period.

e) One class meets for a ninety-minute period once a week.

f) One class meets two times one week and three times the following week.

g) One class meets for a six-week period.

h) One class meets for one thirty-minute period.

i) One class meets for a forty-minute period.

the schools, home economics, music, gymnasium, art, shop, and health are scheduled not more than two periods a week in a majority of the schools. A glance over the table shows that subjects are scheduled three times a week less often than they are scheduled one, two, four, or five times. The percentages given at the foot of the table verify this impression and emphasize the marked tendency to offer subjects one period a week.

A cursory examination of the table as a whole shows that each day of the week must, to a great extent, be different from every other day of the week. The principle of regularity must be observed in a weekly rather than a daily cycle. A legitimate question to ask as one surveys these data is: Can habits be developed in a weekly sequence of events as well as in a daily sequence? It does not seem likely that they can be.

The time arrangements on which classes are scheduled.—While the variations in the time allotted to the several subjects could hardly be as marked in any one school as in the composite picture which is Table 1, it must be clear to the person who has had any contact with scheduling problems that the building of these junior high school schedules would necessarily entail a wide variety of time arrangements of the pupils' classes. Table 2 shows the various time arrangements that appear on the same schedule cards as those analyzed in Table 1. For each time arrangement is shown a percentage distribution of the pupils according to the number of subjects which they have meeting on that arrangement.

The procedure in tabulation was as follows: If John Doe had his English and mathematics every day in the first and the sixth periods, respectively, a tally was placed after "5-1" in the column headed "Two Subjects." If he had history on Monday, Tuesday, Wednesday, and Friday in the second period, a tally was placed after "4-1-1" in the column headed "One Subject." If he had art, music, and penmanship for one period a week each, a tally was placed after "1" and in the column headed "Three Subjects." If he had shop on Wednesday in the third and fourth periods, that would be tallied after "1-D" (one day a week for a double period) and under "One Subject." In this manner all the subjects in John's program were tallied.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF SCHEDULES OF 234 EIGHTH-GRADE PUPILS
ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF SUBJECTS MEETING UNDER
VARIOUS TIME ARRANGEMENTS

TIME ARRANGEMENT*	PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS HAVING TIME ARRANGEMENT IN—						Total
	Five or More Subjects	Four Subjects	Three Subjects	Two Subjects	One Subject	No Subject	
5-1		19.7	8.1	11.5	15.0	45.7	100.0
4-1-c	2.6	2.6	2.1	10.7	17.1	65.0	100.1
4-1-i	2.6		4.3	16.7	16.2	60.3	100.1
3-1-c					5.6	94.4	100.0
3-1-i				3.4	11.5	85.0	99.9
2-1-c		2.1	3.4	3.0	14.1	77.4	100.0
2-1-i			3.4	10.3	22.6	63.7	100.0
2-1- $\frac{1}{2}$ -c†				1.7	.9	97.4	100.0
2-1- $\frac{1}{2}$ -i‡				2.1	1.3	96.6	100.0
1	18.8	22.2	36.8	10.7	11.5		100.0
1- $\frac{1}{2}$					4.3	95.7	100.0
1-D§				4.3	35.0	60.7	100.0
5-2			2.1	3.8	9.0	85.0	99.9
4-2-c				1.3	2.6	96.2	100.1
4-2-i		.9	1.7	5.1	6.8	85.5	100.0
3-2-c					2.1	97.9	100.0
3-2-i					9.0	91.0	100.0
2-2-c				.9	15.4	83.8	100.1
2-2-i				3.8	18.8	77.4	100.0
2-2- $\frac{1}{2}$ -c				3.0	2.1	94.9	100.0
2-2- $\frac{1}{2}$ -i			2.1	.9	1.7	95.2	99.9
5-3		.4	1.3	2.1	12.0	84.2	100.0
4-3-c			.4	.4	9.8	89.3	99.9
4-3-i			.4	2.1	12.4	85.0	99.9
3-3-i					.9	99.1	100.0
5-4		1.7	1.3	.9	4.3	91.9	100.1
4-4-c				.4	2.6	97.0	100.0
4-4-i					2.1	97.9	100.0
5-5				.4	.4	99.1	99.9
3- $\frac{1}{2}$ -i-i					1.3	98.7	100.0
2- $\frac{1}{2}$ -i-c				.4	.4	99.1	99.9
2- $\frac{1}{2}$ -i-i					.4	99.6	100.0
3-2D-c					3.4	96.6	100.0
1 triple period					5.6	94.4	100.0

* The first numeral indicates the number of times a week that the class meets; the second numeral, the number of different periods of the day that the class meets; and the letter, whether the class meets on consecutive days (c) or has one or more days intervening (i). Thus, "5-1" indicates that the class meets five periods a week at the same period every day; "4-1-c" that the class meets four periods a week at the same time every day and on consecutive days; "4-1-i" that the class meets four periods a week at the same time every day with one day intervening.

† Class meets for a half-period on two days a week at the same time each day on consecutive days.

‡ Class meets for a half-period on two days a week at the same time each day with one day or more intervening.

§ Class meets for one double period a week.

Reading the first line of the table, one notes that nearly 20 per cent of the pupils have four subjects scheduled on the 5-1 arrangement; that smaller percentages have one, two, or three subjects so scheduled; and that nearly half the pupils (45.7 per cent) have no subjects so scheduled. In all likelihood this last percentage signifies that nearly half the schools have no eighth-grade classes scheduled on the 5-1 time arrangement.

It is notable that 100 per cent of these pupils have at least one subject meeting only one period a week. A slight computation shows that the median number of such subjects for a pupil is approximately 3.75. The home-room period, the assembly period, and the activities period, all of which appeared on the schedules of some schools, were not included. It was arbitrarily decided not to consider these elements of the school program as subjects.

Between 35 and 40 per cent of the pupils have one subject or more scheduled on each of the following time arrangements: 4-1-C, 4-1-i, 2-1-i, and 1-D. Between 10 and 25 per cent of the pupils have one or more subjects scheduled on each of the time arrangements designated as 3-1-i, 2-1-C, 5-2, 4-2-i, 2-2-C, 2-2-i, 5-3, 4-3-C, and 4-3-i. Only two pupils have subjects scheduled on the 5-5 arrangement (the class meeting every day but a different period every day), but 8.2 per cent of the pupils have the serious irregularity which is indicated by the 5-4 time arrangement.

A total of thirty-four time arrangements are shown in Table 2. This fact alone suggests what an entangling task is the scheduling of the junior high school program of studies. While it is true that no single school has all these various time arrangements, the highly involved character of the schedules of many schools can hardly be doubted.

The number of subjects a week.—From the data already presented the inference may be drawn that the number of separate subjects carried by each pupil is relatively large. The facts on this point are shown for all three junior high school grades in Table 3. Variation is evident within each grade, the differences no doubt representing primarily the diverging practices of schools. The medians make it plain that the curriculum of Grade IX is administered through fewer subjects than is that of Grade VII or VIII. This

difference is accounted for by evidence not here reproduced, namely, a table for ninth-grade pupils similar to Table 1. In Grade IX the percentage distribution of the school-subjects according to the number of periods a week that classes meet was as follows: one period, 23.3 per cent; two periods, 11.1 per cent; three periods, 2.5 per cent; four periods, 26.5 per cent; five periods, 31.5 per cent; and one double period, 5.0 per cent. Comparison of these percentages with

TABLE 3
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN GRADES
VII, VIII, AND IX ACCORDING TO NUM-
BER OF SUBJECTS CARRIED

NUMBER OF SUBJECTS	PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS		
	Grade VII (234 Pupils)	Grade VIII (234 Pupils)	Grade IX (236 Pupils)
14	1.7
13	2.1	4.3
12	9.8	15.4	5.5
11	27.4	21.4	14.4
10	16.2	15.4	6.8
9	33.8	26.9	16.9
8	8.5	13.2	20.3
7	0.4	3.0	16.9
6	12.7
5	0.4	6.4
Median num- ber of sub- jects	10.5	10.4	8.7

those for Grade VIII given in Table 1 indicates that a larger proportion of the classes of ninth-grade pupils meet four and five times a week. While the reason for this distinction in curriculum administration may only be surmised, in all probability the domination of Grade IX by college-entrance requirements is the determining factor. Carnegie units must be earned in Grade IX; Grades VII and VIII are free from such restrictions.

Does the pupil have a different teacher for each subject? The evidence required for answering this question is not at hand, but general knowledge of the extent to which departmentalization prevails in junior high schools and studies of that aspect of junior high

school administration which have been made in Johnstown, Pennsylvania,¹ and in Chicago,² would indicate that few pupils are taught more than one subject by the same teacher.

Practices in the scheduling of study periods.—The ideal junior high school schedule, as stated or assumed by a number of theorists,

TABLE 4
PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF PUPILS IN GRADES
VII, VIII, AND IX ACCORDING TO NUMBER
OF STUDY PERIODS A WEEK

NUMBER OF STUDY PERIODS A WEEK	PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS		
	Grade VII (193 Pupils)	Grade VIII (186 Pupils)	Grade IX (203 Pupils)
14.....		0.5
13.....		1.6	4.4
12.....		3.8	4.4
11.....		6.5	3.9
10.....	5.2	1.6	4.4
9.....	9.3	5.9	6.4
8.....	9.3	5.9	5.9
7.....	8.3	1.6	6.4
6.5.....	2.1
6.....	7.3	9.1	10.8
5.....	0.5	5.9	10.8
4.....	4.7	10.8	4.4
3.5.....	2.1
3.....	12.9	19.9	6.9
2.5.....	0.5	0.5
2.....	11.9	7.5	12.3
1.5.....	0.5
1.....	4.1	2.2	6.9
0.5.....	0.5
0.....	21.8	16.1	11.3
Median num- ber of study periods ..	3.5	4.1	5.6

involves a six-period day with sixty minutes to the period. Every period is occupied with some subject, and the sixty minutes is utilized for any activity, including individual study, which may be

¹ P. W. Hutson, "A Neglected Factor in the Teaching Load," *School Review*, XL (March, 1932), 192-203.

² Kathryn E. Steinmetz, "Departmentalization in the Junior High Schools of Chicago," *School Review*, XL (December, 1932), 760-71.

desirable in promotion of the pupil's learning. The schedule cards analyzed for this research, however, show varying numbers of periods which are designated "study" and are not related to any particular subject. Table 4 gives distributions of the pupils of each grade according to the number of independent study periods scheduled. Two-thirds of the schools have a six-period day, but the great majority of pupils have one or more study periods. The variety of practice shown in Table 4 suggests that the study periods are not arranged according to any plan. With subjects on such a wide

TABLE 5

DISTRIBUTION OF CLASSES IN WELLESLEY, MASSACHUSETTS, JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL ACCORDING TO THE NUMBER OF TIMES A WEEK THEY MEET AND ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF DIFFERENT PERIODS THEY MEET*

NUMBER OF TIMES CLASSES MEET A WEEK	NUMBER OF CLASSES	NUMBER OF CLASS MEET- INGS A WEEK	CLASSES DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO NUMBER OF DIFFERENT PERIODS A WEEK THEY MEET				
			One Period	Two Periods	Three Periods	Four Periods	Five Periods
1.	99	99	99
2.	27	54	11	16
3.	11	33	2	9
4.	37	148	4	22	11
5.	31	155	12	15	4
Total.....	205	489

* From: P. W. Hutson, "The Junior High School," *Wellesley School Survey*, p. 59. Wellesley, Massachusetts: Town of Wellesley, 1935.

variety of time arrangements, the unplanned-for gaps in the pupil's schedule are called "study periods." How fruitful is time for study which comes, let us say, on Monday in the sixth period, on Thursday in the second period, and on Friday in the fifth period?

Analysis of the schedule of a single school.—The type of junior high school schedule which has been portrayed may be found elsewhere than in Pennsylvania. Table 5 presents an analysis of the schedule of classes in the junior high school at Wellesley, Massachusetts. Comparing the two left-hand columns, the reader will note that there are ninety-nine classes which meet once a week (including some shop and home-economics classes which have double periods), twenty-seven which meet twice a week, and so on down the columns

to the thirty-one which meet five times a week. The third column, "Number of Class Meetings a Week," is arrived at by multiplying the number of classes by the number of times they meet a week. The totals of columns 2 and 3 show that there are 205 separate and distinct class groups to be administered for a total of 489 meetings a week. Dividing 489 by 5 yields 97.8, which is the number of class groups that would have to be administered if all subjects were on a basis of five periods a week. This contrast throws into sharp relief the administrative burden which is entailed by the existing schedule.

The remainder of the table presents a distribution of the class groups according to the number of different periods a week that they meet. For instance, of the classes meeting twice a week, eleven meet at the same period on both days, while sixteen meet at two different periods, for example, at the second period on Monday and at the fourth period on Wednesday. The modal practice is for classes meeting three and four periods a week to meet at three different periods and for five-period classes to meet at four different periods. Thus, the simple 5-1 time arrangement does not appear in the schedule of this school; all five-period classes are on the 5-3, 5-4, or 5-5 plan. Surely the maximum of complexity is represented in such a schedule. Can it possibly eventuate in a maximum of efficiency?

CONCLUDING COMMENT

Briefly, it has been shown that the education of junior high school pupils, insofar as the sample analyzed is representative, is administered through a relatively large number of subjects, with classes varying widely in the number of meetings a week and with much complexity in the time arrangements shown in the schedules. The facts prompt several thoughts by way of interpretation and recommended change.

With regard to the number of subjects carried by a pupil during any one semester, it must be admitted that there are no absolute criteria by which the number can be designated as too large or too small. It may be pointed out, however, that the more teachers a pupil has, the less contact he has with each teacher and, therefore, the less opportunity to know each teacher intimately. Similarly, if a given teacher's classes are scheduled to meet but once or twice

a week, it follows that he must have many classes to make up a standard teaching load. He has many pupils and relatively slight contact with each pupil. Such a condition has marked bearing on two of the most frequently stated purposes of junior high school reorganization, namely, recognition of individual differences and exploration for guidance. Provision for intimate knowledge of each pupil as a distinctive personality seems to call for few subjects and intensive scheduling of those few.

Another consideration comes from those who aver that the teaching of subjects sets up artificial barriers to education. While education may proceed artificially whether administered through few subjects or many, it is probably true that the *chances* of being able to present the pupil with the lifelike experiences needed for learning vary inversely with the number of subjects.

The irregularity which has been found to characterize pupils' schedules must arouse questions: How does this irregularity affect the efficiency of pupils in their learning and of teachers in their teaching? What is a pupil's attitude toward a class which meets only on Tuesdays during the third period or toward a class which meets on Wednesdays at the first period and on Fridays at the fifth? Can habits be formed as well on a weekly schedule as on a daily schedule?

The writers' general answer to these questions is that regularity is conducive to efficient use of time. The businessman finds it advantageous to have regular hours each day for reading his mail, for dictating, for receiving callers, etc. If one's activities can be organized and systematized on a daily schedule rather than on a weekly basis, it is reasonable to suppose that habits can be formed with far less effort. In the case of school pupils a daily routine makes easier the remembering of assignments, of materials to be brought to class, and of classroom habits.

As a means of meeting these problems the present writers propose that the number of separate subjects carried in one semester be reduced and that as many as possible of the subjects be scheduled for five days a week and at the same period of every day. Many junior high schools now have five schedules in the office—one for each day of the week. Let these schedules be reduced, as far as possible, to

one. In general, such regularity has long been accepted in the senior high school. Perhaps the main reason for the irregularity of the junior high school schedule in Pennsylvania, as in some other parts of the country, is the prevalence of the idea that each subject should be carried through the complete three-year period or at least for two years. Koos is one authority who thinks that such practice is not necessary for some subjects.¹

In his recommendations for the reorganization of the curriculum and the schedule for the junior high school in Wellesley, Massachusetts,² Hutson established most subjects on a basis of five days a week, thereby reducing the number of subjects carried by a pupil at one time to seven or eight. In departments where it seemed advisable to offer subjects on fewer than five days a week, Hutson's program called for either two or three days a week, with the thought that the two's and three's might easily dovetail in the schedules of teachers and of pupils. Such simplification should have the advantages of regularizing the pupil's day and making it easier for the principal to draw up the schedule for the school. It should reduce the average number of pupil personalities which teachers must know in any given semester and also regularize teachers' schedules.

¹ Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior High School*, p. 190. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1927.

² P. W. Hutson, *op. cit.*, pp. 62-66.

NATIONAL YOUTH ADMINISTRATION IN THE HIGH SCHOOL

MARJORIE R. CHAMPINE
Marshall High School, Minneapolis, Minnesota

★

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

AT THE time this study was made, 140 pupils in the Marshall High School of Minneapolis, Minnesota, were receiving aid from the National Youth Administration. As visiting teacher, counselor, and investigator and administrator of state and federal aid, the writer had known these young people for a period of years. She selected one hundred of these pupils and compared them with one hundred pupils not receiving federal aid.

The writer wished to determine (1) which group earned the best marks; (2) how the groups compared in their interests, such as classical, commercial, or vocational, as shown by choice of elective subjects; (3) whether more N.Y.A. than non-N.Y.A. pupils came from broken homes; (4) what percentage of N.Y.A. families were on direct relief; (5) how many families in each group were registered either by the juvenile court or the police department; (6) how the groups compared with respect to socio-economic standing; (7) what percentage of non-N.Y.A. pupils earned money; (8) how many N.Y.A. pupils as compared with non-N.Y.A. pupils belonged to clubs; and (9) whether it would be possible to determine the effect of federal aid on the morale of the group receiving it.

SOURCES OF DATA

In February, 1937, there were 998 pupils in the senior department of Marshall High School. The school draws its pupils principally from the semiskilled group, with a smattering of professors' children. The school is situated in an old part of the city where few new homes are being built. Many of the former residents have moved to outlying districts, and their homes have been made into rooming-houses.

The 140 pupils receiving aid from the National Youth Administration were enrolled in Grades X, XI, and XII. All N.Y.A. pupils in Grades XI and XII were included in this study, and it was necessary to take some pupils from Grade X in order to secure the number desired.

The one hundred N.Y.A. pupils were matched with the same number of pupils who were not receiving N.Y.A. aid. The groups were matched with reference to sex, grade, and age. An attempt was made to match them for intelligence quotient, but it was not possible, because of the small number of cases, to match individual pupils. It was possible, however, to have groups of equal range in intelligence quotient and to include the same number from both groups in each quarter of the distribution. As no intelligence quotients were recorded for some of the pupils, the writer gave the Pressey Senior Classification and Verifying Tests to sixty-one pupils. Part of the intelligence quotients recorded were obtained from the Pressey tests and the remainder from the Otis Self-administering Tests of Mental Ability. In order to have the same average intelligence quotients and approximately the same number of cases in each intelligence-quotient group, the writer eliminated three pairs having a wide range. Ninety-seven pairs of pupils were used in this study.

As measures of school achievement, the term averages for the autumn semester of 1936 were employed. Age-grade status was figured from an age-grade table used by the Board of Education of Minneapolis. Information on whether the home situation was normal or broken was secured from the cumulative-record cards and by personal interviews. Socio-economic status was determined by classifying the occupation of the father according to the Minnesota occupational classification.¹ If the family was on relief or if the father was dead, the pupil was asked what his father's occupation had been. The number of families known to social agencies in each group was ascertained by clearing the 194 families concerned through the Social Service Index, where a record is kept of every family in the city which has contact with any social agency. Some of the families had as many as eighteen or twenty registrations with Minneapolis social

¹ Florence L. Goodenough and John E. Anderson, *Experimental Child Study*, pp. 501-12. New York: Century Co., 1931.

agencies; they were known to such organizations as the Childrens' Protective Society, Hennepin County Child Welfare, the mothers' pension fund, the juvenile court, Minneapolis General Hospital, Department of Public Relief, etc. The writer consulted the files of the Department of Public Relief in order to make certain that the reports of families receiving relief from the city were accurate. A personal interview was held with each pupil to determine the number of clubs to which he belonged. All pupils in the non-N.Y.A. group were interviewed to determine whether they were working and, if so, the amount that they were earning. All the free elective subjects chosen by each pupil in each group were recorded.

Late in the spring of 1937 the writer selected at random ten cards from the N.Y.A. group and interviewed each of the ten pupils at length. An effort was made to ascertain whether the pupils had experienced any change of attitude or morale since receiving aid.

FINDINGS

School marks.—As shown in Table 1, materially larger percentages of the non-N.Y.A. than of the N.Y.A. group received marks of A and B, and a materially smaller percentage received marks of F.

The non-N.Y.A. group in Marshall High School included fewer normal-progress pupils and more under-age pupils than the city of Minneapolis at large and about the same percentage of over-age pupils.

Subjects elected.—The groups differed decidedly in the extent to which they elected college-preparatory subjects. Larger percentages of the non-N.Y.A. than of the N.Y.A. pupils were studying languages and mathematics, while more N.Y.A. pupils were taking the commercial courses. Slightly more non-N.Y.A. than N.Y.A. pupils were taking science. Almost no differences appeared in the choices of home economics, music, art, and industrial arts.

Family status.—There were many more normal homes, with fathers and mothers living together, in the non-N.Y.A. group. The N.Y.A. group had a slightly greater number of homes with only one parent or no parent than the non-N.Y.A. pupils.

Registration with social agencies.—Seven, or 7.2 per cent, of the families in the N.Y.A. group had no registrations with a social

agency in Minneapolis or the state of Minnesota. This fact signified that the seven families had never been known to any social agency. In contrast, the non-N.Y.A. group contained 35 families, or 36.1 per cent, without registrations. The difference was statistically significant, as shown by the critical ratio of 5.2.

TABLE 1

MARKS, SUBJECTS ELECTED, FAMILY STATUS, AND REGISTRATION WITH
SOCIAL AGENCIES OF 97 N.Y.A. AND 97 NON-N.Y.A. PUPILS

	N.Y.A. PUPILS		NON-N.Y.A. PUPILS		Diff. σ _{DIFF.}
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	
Marks received in first semester of 1936-37:					
A.....			4	4.1	0.0
B.....	8	8.2	21	21.7	2.6
C.....	49	50.5	43	44.3	0.8
D.....	28	28.9	28	28.9	0.0
F.....	12	12.4	1	1.0	3.2
Subjects elected:					
Foreign language.....	21	21.6	39	40.2	2.8
Mathematics.....	16	16.5	29	29.9	2.2
Science.....	49	50.5	57	58.8	1.1
Commercial.....	44	45.4	30	30.9	2.0
Family status:					
Normal home.....	63	65.0	76	78.4	2.1
Broken home.....	14	14.4	6	6.2	1.9
Father dead.....	14	14.4	9	9.3	1.1
Mother dead.....	4	4.1	5	5.1	0.3
Orphan.....	2	2.1	1	1.0	0.6
Registration of family with social agencies:					
None.....	7	7.2	35	36.1	5.2
Police station.....	9	9.3	3	3.1	1.8
Juvenile court.....	40	41.2	22	22.7	2.8
Mothers' pension fund.....	7	7.2	3	3.1	1.3
City relief.....	41	42.3	11	11.3	5.2
City relief and mothers' pension fund.....	48	49.5	14	14.4	5.7

Forty-one per cent of the ninety-seven families in the N.Y.A. group had been registered in the juvenile court. Such registration did not necessarily mean that the pupil represented in this study had been in trouble; rather it meant that he or someone in his family had, at some time, had connection with the juvenile court. This percent-

age was decidedly larger than the percentage for the non-N.Y.A. group, although the latter showed a surprisingly large percentage of juvenile-court registrations.

The difference in the numbers receiving city relief was significant—42.3 per cent in the N.Y.A. group and 11.3 per cent in the non-N.Y.A. group. This figure meant that nearly half of the families receiving federal student aid were also receiving aid from the city. On the other hand, it was remarkable that eleven families in the non-N.Y.A. group had not asked for student aid.

TABLE 2

OCCUPATIONAL CLASSIFICATION OF FATHERS OF 97 N.Y.A. AND 97 NON-N.Y.A. PUPILS AND COMPARISON WITH ALL EMPLOYED MALES IN THE UNITED STATES ACCORDING TO 1930 CENSUS

Occupation of Father	Percentage in N.Y.A. Group	Percentage in non-N.Y.A. Group	Percentage of Employed Males in United States*
I. Professional.....		13.4	2.59
II. Semiprofessional, managerial.....	1.0	15.5	7.22
III. Skilled trade, clerical, retail business..	4.1	17.5	13.81
IV. Farmer.....	4.1	3.1	15.42
V. Semiskilled, minor clerical, minor business.....	36.1	29.9	23.74
VI. Slightly skilled trade; other occupa- tions requiring little training or ability	34.0	8.2	14.47
VII. Day laborers of all classes.....	20.6	12.4	22.63

* From figures based on the 1930 Census, revised by Russell C. Smart at the Institute of Child Welfare, University of Minnesota, after the "Classification of Occupations of Employed Males in United States" given in: Florence L. Goodenough and John E. Anderson, *Experimental Child Study*, pp. 501-12. New York: Century Co., 1931.

Socio-economic status.—As shown in Table 2, there was a decided difference in the socio-economic status of the two groups. None of the N.Y.A. pupils fell in Class I and only 1 per cent in Class II. Of the non-N.Y.A. group, 13.4 per cent were in Class I and 15.5 per cent in Class II. There were only small differences in the percentages of the two groups in Classes IV, V, and VII but a decided difference in Class VI. It should, of course, be remembered that N.Y.A. pupils were drawn heavily from Classes V, VI, and VII, whereas the non-N.Y.A. group was heavily weighted in the upper socio-economic end.

Earnings.—While the N.Y.A. pupils earned their money by helping in nineteen ways, more of the N.Y.A. pupils included in this

study were given clerical work than were assigned to any other type of activity. The amounts paid to the pupils were three, four, and six dollars a month. The average monthly earnings were \$3.88; the median, \$3.00.

Of the ninety-seven pupils in the non-N.Y.A. group, fifteen were earning money in seven different ways, housework being most frequently mentioned. The wages of the non-N.Y.A. pupils varied from fifty cents to twenty-five dollars a week, with a median weekly wage of one dollar. One boy, the owner of fourteen pinball machines, earned twenty-five dollars a week. If the wages of this boy were averaged with the others, the average *weekly* earnings of the non-N.Y.A. group (\$3.69) would be practically the same as the average *monthly* earnings of the N.Y.A. pupils (\$3.88). The median weekly income of the non-N.Y.A. pupils (one dollar) equals four dollars a month, or more than the median monthly amount of aid supplied to the N.Y.A. pupils.

Clubs.—The non-N.Y.A. group belonged to more clubs, their memberships averaging 1.02 per person compared with 0.59 in the N.Y.A. group.

Morale.—After the information about each pupil had been tabulated on cards, the writer, as already stated, selected ten cards by chance and had a personal interview with each pupil. Eight pupils said that they did not miss the study hour which they gave to the N.Y.A. work, and their cards seemed to indicate that they were making normal progress. Two pupils wished for more time for study, and an attempt was to be made to give them work in out-of-school hours. Five pupils said that they liked their work and five that they did not. These answers were not satisfactory because the pupils did not give justifiable reasons for their likes and dislikes. For instance, two said that they did not like the teachers with whom they worked, two did not want to change but did not like what they were doing, and one wanted to do clerical work and would be prepared in the following autumn. There was a difference in how they spent their money, but the ways in which the money was spent proved little save that it was needed. All ten pupils said that they had felt happier in their school associations since they had been receiving federal aid.

MORE EVIDENCE ON THE HOME-TALENT TEACHER

W. R. WIMBISH

Arlington High School, Arlington, Texas

H. M. LAFFERTY

East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce, Texas

★

THE PROBLEM AND SOURCE OF DATA

FEW problems in the field of public-school administration show greater contrasts between theory and practice than does the problem of deciding whether residence shall play a significant role in the selection of a school's teaching personnel. Theorists generally agree that the residence of a teacher should most certainly not be regarded as a critical point in determining employment except as it directly affects the efficiency of the instructional program. Actually, however, many school boards and superintendents are inclined to approve of legislating against all local teachers, thereby placing all home-talent teachers¹ in the same category and thereby robbing them of any claims to individuality in their own communities. Such class legislation (and it is exactly that) suggests a pathetic narrowness of educational vision and a faulty grasp of school administration. Under such extremists educational efficiency ceases to be the major objective in the selection and the appointment of teachers; instead, a teaching applicant succeeds or fails, not on the basis of his academic, personal, and professional status, but on the basis of where he happens to live at the time of his petition of application. Under such discriminatory practices geography comes to occupy a significant position in conditioning the quality of the school program.

Some school boards support the employment of home-talent teachers on the grounds that such a policy serves as (1) a practical

¹ A "home-talent teacher" is usually defined as a teacher who is employed in the community where he received his high-school training and where his family permanently resides.

and an economical investment, (2) a safeguard against teacher transiency, and (3) a means of protecting community pride and loyalty by giving economic assistance to local unemployed teachers. Other school boards either legislate against, or discourage the employment of, local teachers in an effort (1) to reduce local politics, (2) to insure the selection of properly qualified applicants, and (3) to facilitate the dismissal of teachers who have proved unsatisfactory. An acceptance of the principle that each teaching applicant should be judged solely on his own merits and a repudiation of both the above-mentioned distorted policies of teacher selection would do much toward increasing the quality of public-school offerings. Only by considering and evaluating each applicant on his own educational qualifications and by disregarding such conditioning factors as political patronage and the economic need of the person seeking the employment can a superintendent and a school board ever hope to achieve their professed obligation of providing for every child in the community the best possible program of instruction that the community is capable of maintaining on its tax rate.

A previous article¹ reported a study of a number of small Texas city school systems in which local teachers were compared with foreign-talent teachers with respect to age, marital status, years of experience and tenure, and salaries received. Among the observations noted were: (1) Home-talent teachers are older than foreign-talent teachers. (2) A greater percentage of home-talent teachers than of foreign-talent teachers are married. (3) Home-talent teachers as a group show more teaching experience and enjoy longer teaching tenure than do nonresident teachers. (4) Local teachers receive appreciably lower salaries.

Drawing on the same group of Texas schools, the writers will, in the present article, further compare the local teachers with the nonresident teachers on the basis of (1) academic training; (2) professional preparation; (3) professional attitude, as indicated by membership in professional organizations; and (4) teaching efficiency, as measured by ratings of the employing superintendents. Forty-nine small city school systems located in cities with populations of less than five thousand were chosen for study in the school year 1934-35.

¹ W. R. Wimbish and H. M. Lafferty, "The Home-Talent Teacher," *School Review*, XLV (November, 1937), 672-77.

The source of information was the records in the Texas State Department of Education. The permanent residence of each teacher was supplied by the superintendent of the school in which the teacher was employed. Twenty-three of the school systems are in

TABLE 1
COLLEGE TRAINING OF HOME-TALENT AND FOREIGN-TALENT
TEACHERS IN TWO GROUPS OF TEXAS CITIES

AMOUNT OF COLLEGE TRAINING	WOMEN TEACHERS				MEN TEACHERS			
	Home Talent		Foreign Talent		Home Talent		Foreign Talent	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Group A (cities with popu- lations of less than 2,500):								
Hold Masters' degrees..	3	2.7	9	5.5	2	13.3	5	7.0
Hold Bachelors' degrees	49	44.1	132	80.5	10	66.7	59	83.1
Attended three years...	37	33.3	14	8.5	3	20.0	5	7.0
Attended two years...	21	18.9	9	5.5	2	2.8
Attended one year.....	1	0.9
Group B (cities with popu- lations of 2,500-5,000):								
Hold Masters' degrees..	5	2.7	19	7.1	5	11.9	23	17.0
Hold Bachelors' degrees	87	46.8	188	70.7	24	57.1	98	72.6
Attended three years...	56	30.1	40	15.0	5	11.9	11	8.4
Attended two years....	35	18.8	19	7.1	6	14.3	3	2.0
Attended one year.....	3	1.6	2	4.8
Groups A and B:								
Hold Masters' degrees..	8	2.7	28	6.5	7	12.3	28	13.6
Hold Bachelors' degrees	136	45.8	320	74.4	34	59.7	157	76.2
Attended three years...	93	31.3	54	12.6	8	14.1	16	7.8
Attended two years....	56	18.9	28	6.5	6	10.4	5	2.4
Attended one year.....	4	1.3	2	3.5

cities with populations of less than twenty-five hundred (Group A); twenty-six are in cities with populations of twenty-five hundred to five thousand (Group B).

ACADEMIC TRAINING

A frequent charge made against the employment of local teachers is that such teachers are usually inadequately trained. If all local and all foreign-talent teachers are considered as a group, Table 1

lends some objective support to that contention. In the two groups of cities the percentage of foreign-talent women teachers holding at least the Bachelor's degree is about 32 more than the percentage of home-talent women teachers similarly qualified. The percentage of nonresident male teachers holding Bachelors' degrees is approximately 18 more than the percentage of local male teachers. Surprisingly enough, less than 50 per cent (48.5 per cent) of the home-talent female teachers of the 49 school systems included in this study have college degrees. The home-talent male teachers compare more favorably, 72.0 per cent having achieved at least the baccalaureate. Approximately 20 per cent of the local female teachers have had two years or less of college training as compared with 6.5 per cent of the foreign-talent female teachers. In the case of the male teachers, 13.9 per cent of the local teachers have had a maximum of two years of college work as compared with 2.4 per cent of the nonresident teachers.

In the schools in the smaller cities (Group A) a higher percentage of teachers hold at least the Bachelor's degree than in the schools in the larger cities (Group B), particularly among the nonresident teachers.

In all these comparisons it should be kept in mind that the inferences are drawn from group averages and not from individual cases. In the individual school systems many local teachers have as good academic qualifications as the foreign-talent teachers, and sometimes better.

PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION

Despite the apparent superior training of the nonresident teachers, when comparison is made on the basis of professional training (the number of college hours of work in education) such superiority disappears. According to Table 2, the foreign-talent female teachers have had an average of three semester hours (the equivalent of one course for one semester) more professional preparation than have the local female teachers. In the case of the men, the nonlocal teachers have had approximately six semester hours (the equivalent of two one-semester college courses) more work in education than have the local teachers. The equality in professional preparation, as compared with the inequality in amount of general academic

training noted in Table 1, suggests that the college programs of the local teachers are more often chosen for purposes of immediateness. Stated differently, such a demonstration of relative professional strength, at least from the standpoint of number of credit hours in education, on the part of the local teachers indicates that the educational equipage of the home-talent teachers is frequently skewed. In states where certification laws demand that teachers must acquire

TABLE 2
SEMESTER HOURS OF TRAINING IN EDUCATION OF HOME-
TALENT AND FOREIGN-TALENT TEACHERS IN
TWO GROUPS OF TEXAS CITIES

GROUP	WOMEN TEACHERS		MEN TEACHERS	
	Number of Teachers	Average Number of Hours in Education	Number of Teachers	Average Number of Hours in Education
Group A (cities with populations of less than 2,500):				
Home talent	108	23.4	15	24.7
Foreign talent	162	26.0	71	26.5
Group B (cities with populations of 2,500-5,000):				
Home talent	174	24.0	37	23.0
Foreign talent	257	27.2	131	30.9
Groups A and B:				
Home talent	282	23.8	52	23.2
Foreign talent	419	26.7	202	29.3

subject proficiency as well as professional knowledge, similarities in the professional equipment of local and nonlocal teachers exist but for a totally different reason, namely, that *all* teachers must have completed four years of college training.

MEMBERSHIP IN PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATIONS

On the assumption that membership in professional organizations is a fairly reliable criterion of professional attitude, Table 3 shows the comparative extent to which local and nonresident teachers are professionally minded. The professional organizations chosen were

the Texas State Teachers Association and the National Education Association. Large percentages of both home-talent and foreign-talent teachers are members of the Texas State Teachers Association, while a negligible number belong to the National Education Association. Approximately 61 per cent of the schools in Group A

TABLE 3
MEMBERSHIP IN TEXAS STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION AND IN NATIONAL
EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF HOME-TALENT TEACHERS AND FOREIGN-
TALENT TEACHERS IN TWO GROUPS OF TEXAS CITIES

GROUP	WOMEN TEACHERS				MEN TEACHERS			
	Home Talent		Foreign Talent		Home Talent		Foreign Talent	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Group A (cities with populations of less than 2,500):								
Members of state association . . .	77	69.4	118	71.5	9	60.0	53	74.6
Not members of state association	34	30.6	47	28.5	6	40.0	18	25.4
Members of N.E.A.								
Group B (cities with populations of 2,500-5,000):								
Members of state association . . .	157	84.0	234	88.0	37	88.1	118	87.4
Not members of state association	30	16.0	32	12.0	5	11.9	17	12.6
Members of N.E.A.	6	3.2	4	1.5	2	4.8	7	5.2
Groups A and B:								
Members of state association . . .	234	78.5	352	81.7	46	80.7	171	83.0
Not members of state association	64	21.5	79	18.3	11	19.3	35	17.0
Members of N.E.A.	6	2.0	4	0.9	2	3.5	7	3.4

report that all their teachers are members of the state association, while 50 per cent of the schools in Group B show a perfect membership standing in the state organization.

In the schools in which all teachers are not members of the state association, several significant differences are observed. In the smaller cities 20.9 per cent of the home-talent women teachers are members of the Texas organization as compared with 33.8 per cent of the nonresident women teachers. Similarly, 14.3 per cent of the local male teachers are members as compared with 35.7 per cent

of the nonlocal male teachers. In the school systems in Group B the percentages again favor the nonresident teachers, but not so much as in the smaller cities. On the basis of these data it would appear that (1) a larger percentage of nonresident than of local teachers affiliate themselves with professional educational organizations and (2) that the percentage of teachers joining professional organizations increases with size of school system.

TEACHING EFFICIENCY

Educators and laymen alike have been outspoken regarding the efficiency of the home-talent teacher. To some, the local teacher is definitely superior because of his familiarity with the affairs of the community. To others, the local teacher is definitely inferior because he lacks, by virtue of his close acquaintanceship with local conditions, the new ideas, the enthusiasm, and the neutrality of the teacher who is a nonresident. The data in Table 4 represent an effort to inject some degree of objectivity into the discussion.

The superintendents of the several city school systems were asked to rate the teachers in their respective schools on the following scale: A, superior; B, good; C, fair; and D, poor. There are obvious shortcomings to the use of such general descriptive terms without any attempt to define "superior," "good," "fair," and "poor" other than to affix an alphabetical interpretation. The fact remains, however, that these terms still represent the medium of expression most commonly used by superintendents and principals of small city schools in evaluating individual abilities. Then, too, the purpose here is not so much to determine whether the local teachers are rated A, B, C, or D, but rather to determine whether the local teachers as a group are rated superior to, on a par with, or inferior to, nonresident teachers as a group. According to Table 4 the percentages of the foreign-talent teachers who are rated superior (40.0 per cent of the women and 40.7 per cent of the men) are larger than the corresponding percentages of local teachers (32.8 per cent of the women and 39.3 per cent of the men). On the other hand, slightly larger percentages of the home-talent teachers than of foreign-talent teachers are rated good. In the affixing of ratings of fair and poor, neither of the two groups enjoys a significant advantage. Since approximately

85 per cent of all the teachers, both local and nonresident, are given a rating of good or better, it is evident that the reporting superintendents are, on the whole, rather well pleased with their teaching staffs. There is no indication in Table 4 that a teacher's residence is in itself evidence of that teacher's efficiency or inefficiency.

TABLE 4
RATINGS ON TEACHING EFFICIENCY GIVEN BY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS
TO HOME-TALENT AND FOREIGN-TALENT TEACHERS
IN TWO GROUPS OF TEXAS CITIES

RATING	WOMEN TEACHERS				MEN TEACHERS			
	Home Talent		Foreign Talent		Home Talent		Foreign Talent	
	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent	Num- ber	Per Cent
Group A (cities with popu- lations of less than 2,500):								
A (superior)	41	36.9	59	35.8	4	26.7	20	28.2
B (good)	48	43.2	71	43.0	7	46.7	35	49.3
C (fair)	19	17.1	29	17.6	3	20.0	12	16.9
D (poor)	3	2.7	6	3.6	1	6.7	4	5.6
Group B (cities with popu- lations of 2,500-5,000):								
A (superior)	52	30.2	104	42.8	18	43.9	61	47.7
B (good)	95	55.2	110	45.3	19	46.3	52	40.6
C (fair)	25	14.5	25	10.2	4	9.8	14	10.9
D (poor)			4	1.7			1	0.8
Groups A and B:								
A (superior)	93	32.9	163	40.0	22	39.3	81	40.7
B (good)	143	50.5	181	44.4	26	46.4	87	43.7
C (fair)	44	15.5	54	13.2	7	12.5	26	13.1
D (poor)	3	1.1	10	2.5	1	1.8	5	2.5

CONCLUSION

It has not been the intention in this article to indorse the employment of all home-talent teachers. Obviously the addition of too many local teachers, regardless of their professional capabilities, would result in an inbreeding of educational practices, although, as Maxwell and Kilzer point out, "the exact safety maximum has never

been determined."¹ It has been the intention in this article, however, to present some objective evidence in refutation of the demands and arguments of some school administrators and theorists that local teachers as a group be no longer considered eligible for employment in their own communities. There is no logical reason for believing that all home-talent teachers are inferior teachers; at the same time, there is no logical reason for believing that all home-talent teachers are superior teachers. Every teacher applicant should be judged solely on the extent to which his qualifications measure up to the demands of the vacancy to be filled. Any other approach to the selection and the appointment of teachers cannot be justified. The following statement, aimed at schools which discriminate against married women teachers as a class, may be fittingly applied to the case of the home-talent teacher: "A blanket rule that arbitrarily eliminates individuals as a class levies a high tariff on training and talent and such rule should find reason for existence in unprejudiced sustaining evidence."²

¹ C. R. Maxwell and L. R. Kilzer, *High School Administration*, p. 489. Garden City, New York: Doubleday, Doran & Co., Inc., 1936.

² D. W. Peters, "Married or Single?" *Nation's Schools*, XX (December, 1937), 42.

LARGE-GROUP INSTRUCTION—A LECTURE- LIBRARY EXPERIMENT IN READING

A. S. HANCOCK

Central High School, Trenton, New Jersey

★

PROCEDURE

THE chief purpose of the English teachers in dealing with a class of thirteen hundred Sophomores entering the Trenton senior high school was to arouse their interest in reading—to lead them to books as a source of pleasure or profit in their leisure hours. We wanted especially to reach those who were not already “book-minded.” If we could lead such pupils to Zane Grey, Robert W. Service, and the *Saturday Evening Post*, we felt that we had done them an educational service. Nevertheless, knowing that interest thrives best in an active mind when it has a body of ideas to work on, we thought that we owed something more to the better pupils than the foundation of a vacuous enjoyment of reading, valuable as that might be. In the program tentatively settled on, we tried to stimulate the nonreader to read something, the average reader to read a greater number and variety of better books than he had been reading, and the good reader to read with an increasing degree of understanding and appreciation.

Having two fairly well equipped libraries, a small auditorium, a number of teachers in the English department with more than average ability as lecturers, a long-standing curiosity to know what could be done with large-group instruction in literature, some interest in a free-reading program, and a principal urging the use of all these facilities and interests, we decided on the following form for our experiment.

Before school opened in the autumn, the 1,300 pupils were divided into two unselected groups of 650 each. To one group we gave a course in composition running from September to the last of January. During that same period the other group was taking literature.

In February they shifted, so that the composition group took literature in the second semester and the literature group took composition. This article deals only with the method used in teaching literature.

We assigned the 650 pupils who were taking literature to five equal groups of 130 each, one division for each period of the school day. On Tuesdays and Thursdays they went to a small auditorium to hear lectures on various types of literature. They began the year thus: Period 1, seven lectures on fiction; Period 2, seven lectures on drama; Period 3, seven lectures on poetry; Period 4, seven lectures on prose nonfiction; and Period 5, seven lectures on fiction.

At the end of each four- or five-week period, when the four lecturers had finished their seven talks, they advanced on a revolving schedule to the next period of the day, where they met a new group of 130 pupils. Thus, sometime during the semester the pupils of each period of the day heard all four lecturers.

On Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays the pupils reported in groups of sixty-five to a regular teacher of English in one of the two libraries to read the type of book which they had heard discussed by the lecturer. The function of the lecturer was to tell about books and authors so interestingly that pupils would *want* to read. The function of the teacher-librarian was to find the book best adapted to the interest and the reading ability of the individual pupil. Thus an instructional program was combined with a free-reading program, with the emphasis on free reading.

The lecturer on fiction told his group what good readers enjoy when they read fiction: the story (plot, action, and adventure); the emotional reaction (humor, grief, pity, suspense, excitement, and intellectual agreement); the setting (time, place, and conditions); interesting characters; ideas, problems, and social conditions that demand attention; and style and fine workmanship. He told them about different kinds of novels, trying to make a few titles so interesting that pupils would try to find them during the library periods: animal stories, "westerns," mystery tales, sea stories, war stories, novels of sentiment and moral idealism, historical romances, character novels, novels of social criticism, and novels that attract by the beauty of their style. While he was discussing the types of novels,

he pointed out the appeal of different kinds of books so that the pupils might see that the interest of a problem novel like Upton Sinclair's *King Coal* is different from that of a story like *Mutiny on the Bounty*; that the interest of Van Dine's *Greene Murder Case* is different from that of a character novel like *Silas Marner*. He showed them that the good reader notices what the author's chief interest is, reads the book from that point of view, and appraises it from that angle. In trying to make various books so attractive that pupils would want to read them, he offered a range of titles beginning with novels like the animal stories for pupils whose reading experience was limited and climbing to some of the world's masterpieces for the most ambitious. Likewise, within a given type he suggested such easy character novels as *Mrs. Wiggs of the Cabbage Patch* as well as the longer, more complex *David Copperfield*.

The lecturer on poetry explained the qualities of verse that differentiate it from prose. He showed that, whereas prose may contain beauty of form and substance and figures of speech, poetry has these qualities in greater abundance. He attempted by illustrative readings to lead his hearers into such appreciation of the beauty and rhythm of poetry that they might find enjoyment in this type of literature. Furthermore, he endeavored to reveal some of the interesting subject matter of poetry and to introduce to his pupils some of the experiences and feelings of the poets—not excluding humor—in their treatments of nature, love, personalities, and social wrongs. In all his work the dominant aim was to create the desire to read worth-while poetry with understanding and enjoyment.

The lecturer on the drama had several objectives. The pupil enters the class with perhaps one question in his mind: "Who has written good plays and where can I find them?" This question the lecturer attempted to answer so that no time should be lost in bringing the pupil into contact with the best in the field of drama. He pointed out that great societies in the past have had great drama, notably Greece, Rome, and Elizabethan England. He made use of scale models of Greek and Elizabethan theaters. Distinction was drawn between "Broadway" and "non-Broadway" theaters. He emphasized the social aspects of the drama, some of the great themes, and the social changes brought about by the theater. He made constant

reference to motion-picture versions, since many pupils are not able to see stage productions. He helped pupils to an understanding of the different types of plays by giving specific instruction on what to look for in each—melodrama, farce, folk plays, etc. Finally, he called their attention to the making of the drama, showing in simple terms how the human struggle works out interestingly on the stage, for he believed that pupils enjoy some knowledge of construction as long as they are able to follow it. He found it important that fresh material from daily press and contemporary magazines be used to keep interest at the peak.

The lecturer on prose nonfiction first defined the term. He then showed his pupils the wide field that it covers: newspapers, certain types of magazines, letters, diaries, travel, adventure, out-of-doors, textbooks, history, economics, politics, biography, autobiography, sports, and essays. He then spent much of his time discussing books in three fields: (1) biography or autobiography, (2) travel or adventure, and (3) essays. He limited his discussion largely to these fields because the pupil works in the other fields (newspapers, textbooks, etc.) and because the time was too limited to take a chance on *probable* results. He had in mind a definite psychology as he approached the three fields for discussion: The average human being is dominated by the spirit of curiosity. Biography appeals to that element; it satisfies the pupil's desire for knowledge about Marie Dressler, Thomas Edison, Disraeli. The average human being wants to travel, to have adventure. Since, principally because of financial limitations, he cannot travel, he does the next best thing: he reads about the travels and the adventures of others. Again, man likes to know what others are feeling, experiencing, thinking. The essay appeals to people for that reason. About midway in the course the lecturer discussed style, emphasizing five points: (1) ideas, (2) organization of ideas, (3) vocabulary, (4) sentence structure, and (5) paragraphing.

On Mondays, Wednesdays, and Fridays, when the pupils were in the libraries, they read what had been recommended to them or anything else that they found interesting in the field being covered by the lecturer. The teacher-librarian tried, as he became acquainted with the pupils, to find books adapted to the ability and the reading

experience of the individual. In general, members of the class knew what they wanted, and, if a copy of one of the books on their selected list was available, the problem of allocation was not difficult. Too many pupils, however, either because they wanted something easy or because they already had a taste for mysteries or "westerns," wanted to read nothing but these easier books; a few overambitious readers toploftily chose books that were beyond them. The teacher did the best he could to help all such pupils find books suited to their levels of interest. The ideal, of course, is to have each pupil read the *best* of the books that he can read with enjoyment and understanding. Without pleasure there is little or no profit in reading, but, unless the book is difficult enough to constitute a challenge, there is no intellectual growth. It was found advisable to allow pupils to shift from verse to fiction, drama, or prose nonfiction after the first part of the period. Fifty minutes of poetry seemed too concentrated a diet for many Sophomores—not to mention some of their elders.

Marks must be given: Because the teacher-librarian worked with the same group of pupils throughout a semester while a lecturer remained with a given group for only four or five weeks, the library teacher was responsible for computing the ratings that were sent to the office. They were based on marks submitted by the lecturer, which were secured from tests on his lecture material, on the number and the kinds of books read, and on the degree of understanding manifested by the pupil in discussing what he had read.

EVALUATION

The pupils taking composition during the first semester were not asked to read any books. What they read during the eighteen weeks was, therefore, voluntary reading done during the rather busy life of a high-school pupil. At the end of the semester they were asked, first, to tell how many books of all kinds they had voluntarily read during this period and, second, to specify how many of these were novels, how many were plays, how many were prose nonfiction, and how many were poetry. These pupils had not heard the lectures, had not had the contact with teachers and books in the libraries. Their answers are given in the second column in Table 1.

At the end of the second semester the pupils who had been taking

composition and who had not been asked to read any books during the eighteen weeks were given the same questionnaire. The only known difference between the two groups was the fact that the second group had been exposed during the previous semester to the lecture-library experience. The results are tabulated in the third column of Table 1.

TABLE 1

READING DONE DURING SEPTEMBER TO JANUARY BY GROUP WHICH HAD NOT BEEN EXPOSED TO LITERATURE COURSE COMPARED WITH READING DONE DURING FEBRUARY TO JUNE BY GROUP WHICH DURING PREVIOUS SEMESTER HAD TAKEN LITERATURE COURSE

	September to January (Group Not Ex- posed to Literature Course)	February to June (Group Exposed to Literature Course)	Percentage of Increase
Number of pupils reporting.....	599	525	- 12.4
Number of books read.....	5,210*	6,711*	28.8
Average number of books read per pupil	8.7	12.8	47.1
Median number of books read per pupil	6	9	50.0
Number of pupils reading 18 books (at least one a week).....	48	72	50.0
Number of pupils reading 9-17 books (one and a fraction every 2 weeks)...	122	127	4.1
Number of pupils reading 4-8 books (one and a fraction every month).....	149	107	- 28.2
Number of pupils reading 1-3 books (less than one a month but reading some- thing).....	117	75	- 35.9
Number of pupils reading no books....	122	67	- 45.1
Number of fiction titles read.....	3,125	3,411	9.2
Number of drama titles read.....	326	861	164.1
Number of prose nonfiction titles read.	1,137	1,623	42.7
Number of poetry titles read.....	402	661	43.1

* On many pupils' reports the total of the types of books read, shown later in the table, did not tally with the total number of books reported. No attempt was made to correct this discrepancy.

In the fourth column is given the percentage of increase or decrease of the group reporting in June, who had had the lecture-library course, as compared with the group reporting in January, who had not had the course.

On the assumption that the degrees of guessing by the two groups concerning the number of books read canceled each other, the following conclusions, among others, seem justified.

Pupils who had had the lecture-library course read, on the average, almost half again as many books as those who had not had the course. The number of those reading a large number of books was appreciably increased. The number of those reading no books or a small number of books was strikingly decreased.

Although fiction remained the favorite type of reading by a ratio of 2 to 1, there was a much greater percentage of increase in the reading of poetry and prose nonfiction and a surprisingly large percentage of increase in the reading of drama.

TABLE 2
PUPILS' RESPONSES TO QUESTIONNAIRE ON RELATIVE EFFECTIVENESS
OF LECTURE-LIBRARY METHOD AND REGULAR CLASSROOM METHOD

	LECTURE-LIBRARY METHOD		REGULAR CLASSROOM METHOD	
	Frequency	Per Cent	Frequency	Per Cent
Preferred method.....	383	79	103	21
More books read.....	402	90	43	10
Better books read.....	406	89	52	11
More learned about books.....	395	87	59	13
More likely to cause pupils to read more in the future.....	381	86	64	14

At the end of the first semester the group who had just finished with the lecture-library course were asked to tell (1) whether they preferred the lecture-library method of learning or the regular classroom method, (2) under which method they had read *more* books, (3) under which they had read *better* books, (4) under which they had learned more about books, and (5) which they thought would be likely to cause them to read more after they left school. (Comparisons were made with what they remembered of their experience in Grade IX in their previous year.) Their answers are given in Table 2. A number of pupils for one reason or another did not answer the questions. From 79 to 90 per cent of those answering preferred the lecture-library method and attested its superiority on each of the five questions asked.

SELECTED REFERENCES ON THE ADMINISTRATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

GRAYSON N. KEFAUVER AND AUBREY E. HAAN
Stanford University

*

THE references listed below deal with aspects of the administration of secondary schools. Many general references have been omitted because they apply as much to the elementary as to the secondary level. In the articles and books published during the year, there has been increased effort to define the relations of the secondary-school program to modern social needs and to a philosophy of education. There has been an increase also in the recognition of the importance of developing a school program in harmony with democratic social values and processes. This emphasis has involved greater participation by pupils and teachers in planning and operating the program of the school.

GENERAL

510. ENGELHARDT, FRED, and OVERN, ALFRED VICTOR. *Secondary Education—Principles and Practices*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xvi+624.
A comprehensive treatment of secondary-school programs.
511. GRIZZELL, E. D. *American Secondary Education*. New York: Thomas Nelson & Sons, 1937. Pp. xiv+312.
A comprehensive discussion of the development of the high school as an expression of a democracy's attempt to meet the needs of all youth. Points out the necessity for developing new types of organization and new personnel.
512. LEE, CHARLES A., and ROSENSTENGEL, W. E. "Philosophy of Junior College Administrators," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (February, 1938), 227-30.
From a survey of the philosophy of junior-college administrators in Missouri, the authors make conclusions on the kind of education that the junior college should furnish.
513. SEXSON, JOHN A. "A New Type of Secondary School," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (February, 1938), 1-11.

A discussion of the deficiencies of the traditional high school in meeting individual needs and a description of the organization of the eight-year secondary school at Pasadena, which is designed to correct these difficulties.

514. STANFORD UNIVERSITY EDUCATION FACULTY. "The Role of the Elementary and Secondary School Principal," *The Challenge of Education*, pp. 337-54. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1937.

A discussion of the function of the principal, emphasizing his work of teacher guidance, curriculum development, and situation adjustment. Other sections of the book deal with the curriculum, recognizing both elementary- and secondary-school levels.

515. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. *The New High School in the Making*. Chicago: American Book Co., 1938. Pp. x+318.

A treatment of the curriculum and the administration of a modern secondary school. Emphasis is placed on practices in harmony with the philosophy of progressive education.

POPULATION

516. BRIGGS, THOMAS H. "Education for Every Normal Youth," *Clearing House*, XII (March, 1938), 412-13.

An answer to the attack by Caverly (Item 517 in this list).

517. CAVERLY, ERNEST R. "Shall the High School Eliminate Its Failures?" *Clearing House*, XII (January, 1938), 259-63.

An attack on the recommendation of the Committee on the Orientation of Secondary Education that pupils who "cannot or will not materially profit from further study of what can be offered" should be eliminated from high school.

518. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Why Secondary-School Pupils Leave School," *Clearing House*, XII (May, 1938), 525-28.

A report of the investigation made by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards of the relation to absence and pupil mortality of the factors of sex, type of school, geographical area, and mental ability.

519. KOTSCHNIG, WALTER M. "Limiting Student Enrolments," *Educational Record*, XVIII (July, 1937), 354-67.

A study of the trends toward limiting enrolments in schools of higher education in other countries and a discussion of the significance of the problem for secondary and higher education in the United States.

520. MELVIN, BRUCE L., and OLIN, GRACE E. "Migration of Rural High-School Graduates," *School Review*, XLVI (April, 1938), 276-87.

A report on the study of changes in migration of high-school graduates from 1930 to 1936 in forty-five agricultural villages, conducted by the Division of Social Research of the Works Progress Administration in co-operation with the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education and the Columbia University Council for Research in the Social Sciences.

SIZE OF CLASS

521. BAKER, HARRY LEIGH. "High-School Teachers' Knowledge of Their Pupils," *School Review*, XLVI (March, 1938), 175-90.
A report of a study of the amount of knowledge of pupils possessed by teachers compared to that which "educators, guidance specialists, and psychologists consider of importance in the educational treatment of individual children." Shows that teachers of large classes know less about their pupils than teachers of small classes.
522. IRWIN, MANLEY E. "Size of Class and Teaching Load," *Review of Educational Research*, VII (June, 1937), 276-83.
A review of the researches of trends in class size, means of measuring teaching load, differences in teaching loads in small and large schools, and the effects of class size on learning.
523. LOBNER, JOYCE E. "The Problem of Class Size—A Teacher's View," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XII (October, 1937), 374-75.
Attacks the validity of an investigation of the effect of class size on learning.

MARKS AND REPORTS

524. ANDRUS, ETHEL PERCY. "A Practical and Economical Report Card," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (April, 1938), 209-11.
Reports a new type of report card used in Los Angeles which emphasizes evaluation of the pupil in terms of behavior.
525. RATHS, LOUIS E. "Comprehensive Evaluation in the Schools," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (March, 1938), 137-42.
Describes an evaluation program which is concerned with the whole educational program and is expressed in terms of pupil behavior.
526. WRINKLE, WILLIAM L. "The Story of a Secondary-School Experiment in Marking and Reporting," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, XXIII (October, 1937), 481-500.
An account of experimentation with three methods of marking.

GROUPING

527. ROGERS, MINNIE; HENNESSEY, JULIA; and HUNT, HELEN. "The Classification of Junior High School Students," *University High School Journal*, XVI (December, 1937), 89-94.
As a basis for grouping, use was made of pupils' friendships, social maturity, reading age, mental age, and special abilities and disabilities.

SCHOOL BUILDINGS

528. ENGELHARDT, N. L. "Modern Trends in School Planning as a Result of Changing Curriculums," *American School Board Journal*, XCVI (January, 1938), 23-24, 108.
Proposals for planning the building around the objectives for each type of activity.

529. ENGELHARDT, N. L. "School Buildings for Community Use," *Journal of Adult Education*, X (April, 1938), 154-57.
Discusses the need for planning school buildings for use by adult classes.
530. HARBESON, JOHN W. "Planning Better Plants for Upper Secondary Schools," *American School Board Journal*, XCVI (January, 1938), 64-65, 108.
Treats of the deficiencies of present school plants in the following respects: (1) classroom size, (2) rooms for science instruction, (3) provisions for visual education, (4) administrative offices, (5) libraries, (6) study laboratories, and (7) rooms for pupil activities.

ACCREDITATION

531. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Bases for a New Method of Accrediting Secondary Schools," *Proceedings of the Twenty-second Annual Meeting of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, pp. 31-50. Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals, No. 73. Chicago: Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association (5835 Kimbark Avenue), 1938. (See also *Educational Record*, Supplement No. 11, XIX [January, 1938], 114-42.)
A discussion of eighteen principles for accrediting schools based on the survey of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards, together with a summary of scales developed for the purpose of evaluating schools.

PUBLIC RELATIONS

532. BEAM, KENNETH S. "Co-ordinating Councils," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XI (October, 1937), 67-72.
A summary of the survey of co-ordinating councils made by the National Probation Association. The general plan of organization, types of work, and guiding principles for organizing are presented.
533. CHASE, ERNEST L. "The Elizabeth Plan for a Community-wide Attack on Social Ills," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XI (October, 1937), 77-96.
Gives a detailed account of the organization of community agencies for a co-ordinated attack on the problems of health, family welfare, child welfare, delinquency, recreation, and housing.
534. COVELLO, LEONARD. "Neighborhood Growth through the School," *Progressive Education*, XV (February, 1938), 126-39.
An inspiring account of the building of a new school, the Benjamin Franklin High School, in East Harlem, New York City, to meet the needs of the community and to co-ordinate the educational work of the entire locality.
535. GRIZZELL, E. D. "The Co-ordinating Function of the Modern Secondary School," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXII (January, 1938), 1-10.
Points to the need for co-ordinating the educational agencies of the community and gives suggestions for such a program.

536. KICKHAFFER, EMILY R. "Flint, Mich., Our Community Civics Laboratory," *Clearing House*, XII (February, 1938), 334-39.
Tells of a city which has provided for civic education through the participation of pupils in social, economic, and political affairs of the community.
537. "School and Community—A Symposium," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XIII (January, 1938), 11-37.
A series of accounts of what high schools are doing to tie up their activities with those of the communities.
538. SMITH, BERTHA. "The Yonkers Co-ordinating Council in the Yonkers Plan," *Journal of Educational Sociology*, XI (January, 1938), 295-303.
A description and an evaluation of the Yonkers plan for co-ordinating the work of schools, courts, city departments, library, chamber of commerce, National Youth Administration, and all other community social-welfare groups.

LIBRARY SERVICE

539. ADAMS, HARLEN M. "Activating Menlo's Library Objectives," *California Journal of Secondary Education*, XII (December, 1937), 468-71.
An enlightening discussion of the objectives of library service in a progressive junior college. Stresses the "whole-school approach," the relation of library service to enriched curriculum, training in reading, recreation, counseling, and integration of courses of instruction.
540. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Improvement of Junior College Libraries," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (December, 1937), 117-25.
A survey of the adequacy of the libraries of 177 representative junior colleges as measured by the *List of Books for Junior College Libraries* compiled for the Carnegie Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries. Contains a Junior College Library Analysis Chart and suggestions for applying it to library improvement.
541. EELLS, WALTER CROSBY. "Total Evaluation of a Secondary School Library," *American Library Association Bulletin*, XXXII (April, 1938), 234-38.
A report on one phase of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.
542. HORTON, MARION. "Teacher-Librarian Co-operation," *Bulletin of the Department of Secondary-School Principals*, XXI (October, 1937), 34-36.
Methods of teacher and librarian co-operation.
543. HURLEY, RICHARD JAMES. "Book Selection Methods of a Progressive High School's Library," *Clearing House*, XII (April, 1938), 453-55.
Discusses the use of pupils' demands, extra-curriculum activities, interest core, teachers' requests, and cultural climate as bases for book selection.
544. McDIARMID, E. W., JR. "Suggestions to Junior College Librarians," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (November, 1937), 62-65.

A visitor for the Carnegie Advisory Group on Junior College Libraries discusses five methods whereby librarians may increase the efficiency of their libraries.

STAFF

545. ALTSTETTER, M. L. "Scales for the Evaluation of the Training of Teachers," *School Review*, XLV (September, 1937), 529-39.

A report of the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards on the investigation of the adequacy, the recency, and the comprehensiveness of the education of about one thousand teachers.

546. ALTSTETTER, M. L. "Evaluating the Education of Administrative Heads of Secondary Schools," *School Review*, XLVI (February, 1938), 108-17.

A study of adequacy, comprehensiveness, and recency of the education of 155 administrative heads in the 200 schools surveyed by the Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards.

547. BRYAN, ROY C. *Pupil Rating of Secondary School Teachers*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 708. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+96.

An investigation similar to that reported in Item 548, involving pupil ratings of teachers in a junior high school and a senior high school but not including a report of attitudes of teachers toward pupil ratings.

548. BRYAN, ROY C. "Pupil Ratings of Secondary-School Teachers," *School Review*, XLVI (May, 1938), 357-67.

An account of pupil rating of twenty-nine junior high school teachers with respect to knowledge, fairness, ability to explain, discipline, sympathy, amount of work, interest, value of subject, and general teaching ability, together with a study of the attitudes of twenty of these teachers toward pupil rating.

549. ZOOK, GEORGE F. "The Problem of Teacher Education," *Junior College Journal*, VIII (May, 1938), 410-16.

Points to the needs for unifying the curriculum of the high school and the junior college and for teachers trained specifically for junior-college work.

CLASS SCHEDULES

550. GILLIS, WILLIAM E. "Planning a Time Schedule," *American School Board Journal*, XCV (December, 1937), 38-39.

Describes plans for scheduling classes, intermissions, special periods, and activities. Indicates new mechanisms which facilitate keeping the time schedule.

551. HUGHES, J. M., and HERRON, HARRY H. "Scheduling Practices in Four-Year High Schools," *School Review*, XLV (September, 1937), 516-24.

Surveys present practice in scheduling home-room periods, assemblies, the study hall, and annual schedule of events in 714 high schools.

Educational Writings

*

REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

A SYSTEMATIC TREATMENT OF SUPERVISION FOR SECONDARY-SCHOOL PRINCIPALS.—High-school principals in general feel that nothing like a satisfactory attack has been made on the problem of secondary-school supervision, despite the fact that more printed material bearing on the subject has come from the press since 1930 than was issued in thirty years preceding that date. A cursory reading of these materials indicates the conviction of theoreticians that high-school principals as a group give far too little attention to this phase of their work. Principals, on the other hand, seem to feel that they would be willing to devote more of their time to the function were they able to discover more satisfactory ways of performing it. They have been reticent to accept the interpretations of many of the professional writers with respect to what supervision could and should be, possibly because most of the treatises on the subject have, in one way or another, encouraged skepticism. Nearly all the treatises have been introduced with long discussions on the meaning of supervision, which, by the character of the development, divulged the existence of a certain fear that the term itself carried with it unfortunate implications and that it had all too long been construed as an accomplice of bad education. That the problem of supervision needs clarification and direction, there can be no doubt. That progress is being made is evidenced in a long awaited book,¹ in which the author rethinks through the entire problem of how principals of high schools can help teachers grow in professional effectiveness. Few people, by training or experience, are so well qualified to accomplish this task as is Professor Briggs, and his efforts will be looked forward to with anticipatory interest by a large group of readers. To Briggs, helping teachers to develop in professional effectiveness is the most important function of the principal, and, as he sees it, a satisfactory discharge of this function calls for the highest order of professional skill and ability that a principal can cultivate.

The treatment is divided among nineteen chapters. Topics appear under such headings as "The Meaning of Supervision," "Types and Means of Supervision," "Organization for Supervision," "Planning for Supervision," "Class-room Observations," "Other Means of Supervision," "Measurement in Supervision," "Supervisory Experimentation," and "Evaluating Supervision."

The objective of supervision, to paraphrase the author's "Golden Rule of

¹ Thomas H. Briggs, *Improving Instruction: Supervision by Principals of Secondary Schools*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. x+588. \$2.50.

Education," is to help teachers do better the desirable things that they will do anyway. Briggs takes the many common and uncommon problems of the school and discusses how principals might intelligently help teachers deal with them. Few men in American education have had the opportunity of coming so close to so great a variety of problems as has the author. The conclusions that he has arrived at as a student of these problems make up the contents of his book. He often uses "should" and "ought" and occasionally the admonitorial "should not" in dealing with the concrete realities of the school, but in most cases these suggestions, which sound so positive, have been projected in terms of a few simple principles considered by the author to be fundamental. Briggs has little patience with the petty principal. He believes leadership should be real, not bestowed by virtue of position. He wants principals to have sufficient professional competence to earn the title of "principal." "The principal should clearly state and justify to the teachers all school policies as soon as they are promulgated, whatever their source" (p. 118). "The principal should anticipate a teacher's difficulties and help to prevent them" (p. 119). "Supervision should not be based on the power of position or of personality" (p. 133).

The author throughout the book maintains an admirable consistency with his belief that what is done must lead to growth—his major criterion for judging results. His chapter on experimentation is a good illustration of how this belief constantly serves to direct the discussion. He believes in teacher research and in teacher experimentation but only in the feasible and helpful kind. All his suggestions seem to be made as if uppermost in his mind were the question: "Will this procedure, if done in the way suggested, lead to teacher improvement?" He takes a like attitude toward studies made in the school by outside professionals.

There is a professional obligation to assist such studies to an extent that is not too detrimental to the learning by the pupils. But there should be assurance that the teachers profit from their experience. In the first place, it is not unreasonable to demand that the experimenter explain and justify to the teachers the purpose and the general plan of the entire study. . . . In the second place, it is not unreasonable to demand that the teachers be informed from time to time of the progress of the study and certainly of the conclusions reached. . . . And, finally, if the findings seem important, the school should ask that the experimenter, either in return for the help rendered him or as a professional service, aid the teachers to work out a plan for making practical application of them [p. 556].

The book is a systematic and a complete treatise. The Briggs style is an appropriate medium for the Briggs thought. Here and there he exhibits a mild prejudice which is treated with good humor, as in this example: "There is a type of worker who, in the words of Andrew Lang, 'uses statistics as a drunken man uses lampposts—for support rather than illumination'" (p. 551). More often he has a conviction which he develops and defends with praiseworthy skill. Illustration adds to the effectiveness of presentation as, for instance, in the following example.

Every individual is the sum of numerous virtues and of some defects, which Carlyle's formula represents by x/y . There are two ways of raising the value of a common fraction: increasing the numerator or decreasing the denominator. Both these means seem at first thought to be applicable to making the human being more valuable to the world, but there are many reasons for concluding that emphasis on the first is wise and usually most successful. If the numerator representing assets of strength is small, reduction of the denominator representing liabilities of weakness to zero results in only a small integer. Nothing is valued highly merely because it has no defects. Abundant virtues make many weaknesses of such insignificance that they are ignored or condoned [p. 153].

Note, also, how consistent this idea is with the author's concept of growth.

The book furnishes enjoyable reading. It can be given a high rank in the field of professional literature and can be read with profit by all who in any way have an interest in the subject of supervision. It contains the mature wisdom and the reflective judgment of one who has read carefully, thought deeply, and has had a rich experience.

J. M. HUGHES

Northwestern University

ORGANIZING THE COMMUNITY TO SHOULDER ITS RESPONSIBILITY FOR THE ASSIMILATION OF YOUTH.—School workers, men as well as women, have chosen traditionally to ignore all the problems of the preparation of youth for life outside the classroom which cannot be approached through stimulating school children to master a textbook and closely related books. What school teachers and administrators do not know of life-problems that beset youth, both while they are in school and later, is overshadowed only by their apparent indifference or their unwillingness to concern themselves with broadening their scope of influence and to function, or to cause other agencies to function, in important areas now unoccupied.

Reller's little monograph¹ will probably be read least by those who need it most. Yet those more progressive school people who will read it may grow and learn much in studying its hundred odd small pages. The volume is concerned with the problem of bridging the gap between "pupil-hood" and "life-hood." It probes with unsparing logic into the question of where the responsibilities lie for bringing immature boys and girls to a state of readiness to cope with modern life in all its aspects. It is particularly concerned with what may be accomplished during the period of youth. It centers chiefly on three areas: vocational, health, and recreational guidance.

In some places the treatment is philosophical and analytical; in others it is apparently authoritative and dogmatic. It supplements theoretical analysis with concrete suggestions for application and cites many actual examples.

¹ Theodore Lee Reller, *Community Planning for Youth*. Philadelphia: Public Education and Child Labor Association of Pennsylvania (1505 Race Street), 1938. Pp. viii + 110. \$1.00.

Among its more serviceable discussions are suggestions for occupational surveys, surveys of further education, and recreational surveys. Perhaps most novel and of greatest service for the school man is the rather detailed and concrete plan for a community co-ordinating council for youth, which will define needs, appraise resources, determine and co-ordinate areas of service, and develop a central record system and a public-relations program. The concluding chapter consists of a technique for appraising the community provisions for youth.

The treatment is nontechnical and usually concise. The book is well written and gives much evidence of the competence of the author in the field of his subject. It does not pretend to furnish either a comprehensive or an intensive treatment of its topics. Such treatment has been wisely sacrificed to brevity. The book should be read by all secondary-school administrators, leaders and students of youth, and "best citizens" as an antidote to school provincialism and nearsightedness. It will furnish rich new vistas in sore need of exploration.

HARL R. DOUGLASS

University of North Carolina

A MANUAL OF STUDY FOR PUPILS.—In 1900, in a book entitled *The Art of Study* (American Book Company), B. A. Hinsdale called attention to the problem of improving study habits. His pioneer efforts have been followed by the appearance of many books and how-to-study outlines which give suggestions for study. Of these, the recently published handbook by Frederick¹ is an excellent illustration. Although the book is recommended for use by classroom and home-room teachers, it is written from the standpoint of the pupil and its style is adapted primarily to the junior high school. The author states that the handbook can be used successfully from Grade V to Grade XII and in certain sections in the Freshman year at college. A challenging introduction for the teacher explains the purpose of the handbook and gives suggestions for using it in how-to-study classes, home rooms, or regular class activities. An introduction for the student emphasizes the importance of good study habits.

Study helps are given on a wide variety of topics, such as reading, using the library, writing themes, making book reports, outlining, concentrating, and taking tests and examinations. The discussion of each topic is followed by suggestions of activities in which pupils may engage. The handbook contains an unusual amount of illustrative materials, such as graphs, maps, sample pages from dictionaries and book indexes, cartoons, and figures. Outlines are used frequently, and each general topic is subdivided in such a way as to facilitate quick reference. A detailed index is included, and a "Self-scoring Studentship Scale" is an interesting feature. Since the handbook contains study suggestions on the taking of tests and examinations, memorizing, and reading for recita-

¹ Robert W. Frederick, with the editorial assistance of William H. Burton, *How To Study Handbook*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xxviii+442. \$1.24.

tions, it is adapted to use in the conventional school situation. On the other hand, its wealth of suggestions on other topics makes it valuable for pupils in progressive schools where emphasis is laid on activities such as reading, creative thinking, taking part in discussions, making generalizations, and using the library.

In an introduction to teachers the author recognizes the necessity of using the handbook in connection with real, challenging learning situations. He calls attention to the fact that effective study habits are developed through long-continued practice. If teachers also recognize these points of emphasis, the handbook may be a valuable aid in directing study. Frequently, however, teachers rely too much on such aids as this handbook. The results of experimental studies point strongly to the conclusion that merely informing pupils of what constitutes good study habits is not enough. Pupils of superior ability are sometimes able, in their own practice, to apply abstract principles of study, but few backward or even average pupils are able to do so. Many pupils have been found who have a fairly clear understanding of what good study habits are but who are very deficient in the ability to apply the habits to their daily work. Any handbook, however simple and concrete the author has attempted to make it, must be supplemented by actual practice in the elements of study, and this practice can best be given in connection with the daily work of the school. For example, it is quite useless to tell pupils to concentrate; concentration results when interesting and challenging experiences are provided. Therefore, a how-to-study handbook will be valuable only to the extent that it is utilized by pupils in their real study situations. The author has attempted at the outset to make this point clear to teachers. If they grasp his meaning, they will find this handbook most helpful in guiding the study activities of pupils. On the other hand, if they fail in this respect, they may be greatly disappointed in the results obtained from the use of the book.

WILLIAM G. BRINK

Northwestern University

A SURVEY OF CONTEMPORARY AMERICAN CIVILIZATION.—Some twenty years ago the Committee on Social Studies of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education proposed a new course for Grade XII, to be entitled "Problems of American Democracy." It was their purpose not "to crowd the several social sciences into this year in abridged forms; but to study actual problems, or issues, or conditions, as they occur in life and in their several aspects—political, economic, and sociological. These problems or issues will naturally vary from year to year and from class to class, but they should be selected on the ground (1) of their immediate interest to the class and (2) of their vital importance to society" (*The Social Studies in Secondary Education*, p. 53. United States Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 28, 1916). These specifications have never been met by authors of textbooks designed for use in problems courses; indeed, it seems unlikely that they can ever be fully realized.

The book under review¹ consists of four parts: "Basic Social Factors" (4 chapters, 80 pages), "Economic Aspects of Modern Civilization" (14 chapters, 326 pages), "Social Aspects of Modern Civilization" (10 chapters, 200 pages), and "Political Aspects of Modern Civilization" (5 chapters, 101 pages). The chapters in the last three divisions correspond to some which would be found in up-to-date textbooks in economics, sociology, and government, respectively. Doubtless the treatment of the last two divisions is briefer than teachers of sociology or government would approve, but the instructor in economics will discover that the customary units are included: production, exchange, distribution, and consumption.

The reviewer wishes to state that, in his estimation, the ideal set for the problems course by the Committee on Social Studies can be attained only where the instructor has the ability, the time, and the resources to work with his class in developing an original organization. In this approach the class doubtless would refer to many of the books cited by the authors in their various chapters and in the general bibliography. In all likelihood the class also would reflect on questions similar to those included for "Application and Interpretation" (at the close of each chapter), as well as engage in activities similar to those suggested.

The presentation by the authors is scholarly. This reviewer, for example, found no evidence of bias even in the discussion of so controversial an issue as the limitation of production. Indeed, he believes that pupils using this textbook regularly will need to supplement their readings with current materials in order to realize fully how prejudiced most persons writing and discussing contemporary problems are likely to be.

HOWARD R. ANDERSON

Cornell University and Ithaca Public Schools

NEW SOCIAL-STUDIES MATERIALS FOR THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL.—In the past few years the teacher of the social studies in the senior high school has been finding an abundance of material. The report of the President's Research Committee on Social Trends and the findings of the Commission on Social Studies of the American Historical Association have revolutionized our thinking and our teaching approach, particularly in the last years of the senior high school. This change, coupled with the adaptation of the Morrison unit method of organization, has made the task of the teacher entirely different. The attempt to teach realities should become easier now.

The materials organized in the textbooks under consideration are strongly marked by the new techniques, especially Hilton's two volumes.² The book by

¹ S. Howard Patterson, A. W. Selwyn Little, and Henry Reed Burch, *Problems in American Democracy*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. x+726. \$1.88.

² Eugene Hilton, *Problems and Values of Today: A Series of Student's Guidebooks for the Study of Contemporary Life*: Vol. I, pp. xviii+640, \$1.60; Vol. II, pp. xii+680, \$1.68. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1938.

Landis and Landis¹ is more conventional in organization, but it directs its main attention also to an examination of pressing social problems in their economic and civic setting. Hilton's books attempt to encompass the chief problems in the field of social, economic, and civic affairs. In most cases there is a blending of these materials around a life-problem so that the materials are not presented in isolation.

Hilton organized each of his books in ten units. Volume I opens with a general orientation unit. Unit II appraises sources of information. Then follow three units on government: Unit III on the organization of government, Unit IV on suffrage, and Unit V on the challenges to democracy. Health and safety are presented in Unit VI. Unit VII treats the acquisition and the use of wealth, and Unit VIII considers money management and consumers' problems. Unit IX discusses spiritual values in American life and Unit X international relations. The second volume has units treating the adjustment of personality to reality, the place and importance of education, economic organizations and activities, the common man's outlook, home and family, planning, "sore spots" in American life (crime, instability of the family, intemperance, vice), provisions for security, care of the handicapped, and vocational problems.

Landis and Landis divide their book into three parts. Part 1 is entitled "The Nature of Society"; Part 2, "Social Institutions"; and Part 3, "Social Problems." The 184 pages devoted to Part 1 are divided into five units. Unit I, entitled "Ourselves and Our World," discusses hereditary and environmental forces. Unit II is entitled "Man's Life in the Social World." Unit III, "The Man-made World," is a presentation of cultural heritage and cultural change. Unit IV, "Why We Behave as We Do," takes up social control and social revolt. Unit V, "Establishing Our Position in Society," takes up the struggle for social position and personal adjustments to the social order.

Part 2 is made up of one big unit, entitled "American Social Institutions," and occupies one hundred pages. The institutions described are the family, education, religion, the economic order, and government.

Part 3 fills the remaining 340 pages and is divided into six units. Unit VII, "Problems of the Primary Group," treats divorce, women and children in industry, and juvenile delinquency. Unit VIII, "Problems in Civic Affairs," handles crime, poverty, and social security. Unit IX is called "Problems of Country, Town, and City." Unit X, entitled "Problems of Physical and Mental Well-being," takes up population problems, the race of tomorrow, social aspects of health, the mentally defective, and leisure time and recreation. Unit XI, "Problems in Human Relations," covers the problems of race and nationality conflicts and world-peace. Unit XII, "Social Progress," places on the pupils the obligation of planning for social and cultural progress.

The authors have made effective use of pictures, graphs, tables of statistics, and other illustrative matter. The suggested activities and projects are, on the

¹ Paul H. Landis and Judson T. Landis, *Social Living: Principles and Problems in Introductory Sociology*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938. Pp. xxii+672. \$1.80.

whole, very good. Hilton has distributed these through the body of the textbook and has used more of them than have Landis and Landis. The list of readings suggested by Hilton is extensive. Many of the citations are to other textbooks, but a number direct the pupil to the newer general works in the field. Landis and Landis give longer reading lists for the teacher than for the pupil. The reviewer believes that it would have been better to give more attention to the pupils' list and to broaden its content. The book by Landis and Landis has a good glossary.

The style in each book is excellent—simple, direct, and vigorous. The problems are vitally connected with the pupil and are presented as challenges. Neither book tends strongly to the abnormal or the pathological.

Some of Hilton's materials leave the reader with a feeling that the story is not complete. For instance, in Unit V of Volume I, "Challenges to Democratic Government," a description of the political machine and its workings would certainly have been in order. Other units also suffer from incompleteness. This defect seems to result from an attempt to build attitudes without using enough concrete evidence. In most of the units, however, this criticism does not hold. Hilton's book may also be criticized on the score of its organization. Whether it is good practice to discuss the economic organization, money problems, and consumers' problems near the middle of the first volume and planning and security near the end of the second is not certain.

As indicated earlier, the organization of Landis and Landis may seem a little conventional. In the actual teaching situation, however, it should be satisfactory. The authors suggest how the book can be used to meet the situations faced by the teacher. This book is primarily a new textbook in sociology.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

Carrollton High School
Carrollton, Missouri

*

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

BEDFORD, JAMES H. *Youth and the World's Work: Vocational Adjustment of Youth in the Modern World*. Los Angeles, California: Society for Occupational Research, Ltd. (University of Southern California Station), 1938. Pp. viii+140.

BOND, EVA. *Reading and Ninth Grade Achievement*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 756. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+62. \$1.60.

The Book of Major Sports. William L. Hughes, editor and collaborator. "Football" by W. Glenn Killinger; "Basketball" by Charles C. Murphy; "Base-

- ball" by Daniel E. Jessee; "Track and Field" by Ray M. Conger. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. 396. \$3.00.
- CASSIDY, ROSALIND. *New Directions in Physical Education for the Adolescent Girl in High School and College: A Guide for Teachers in Co-operative Curriculum Revision*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+232. \$2.50.
- CHRISTIANSON, HELEN. *Bodily Rhythmic Movements of Young Children in Relation to Rhythm in Music: An Analytical Study of an Organized Curriculum in Bodily Rhythms, Including Potential and Functioning Aspects in Selected Nursery School, Kindergarten, and First Grade Groups*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 736. Series in Curricula for Child Growth. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+196. \$2.10.
- EWING, IRENE R., and EWING, ALEX. W. G. *The Handicap of Deafness*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+328. \$5.40.
- FAWCETT, HAROLD P. *The Nature of Proof: A Description and Evaluation of Certain Procedures Used in a Senior High School To Develop an Understanding of the Nature of Proof*. Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xii+146. \$1.75.
- HAGGERTY, HELEN RUTH. *Certain Factors in the Professional Education of Women Teachers of Physical Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 741. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+88. \$1.60.
- HENRY, NELSON B., and KERWIN, JEROME G. *Schools and City Government: A Study of School and Municipal Relationships in Cities of 50,000 or More Population*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938. Pp. xii+104. \$1.50.
- JOHNSON, JOHN THEODORE. *The Relative Merits of Three Methods of Subtraction: An Experimental Comparison of the Decomposition Method of Subtraction with the Equal Additions Method and the Austrian Method*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 738. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 76. \$1.60.
- LAMBERT, ASAEEL C. *School Transportation*. Stanford University, California: Stanford University Press, 1938. Pp. xiv+124. \$3.00.
- LANE, ROBERT HILL, with GERTRUDE M. ALLISON, ETHELYN BISHOP, and DOROTHY JOHNS McNARY. *The Progressive Elementary School: A Handbook for Principals, Teachers, and Parents*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. x+198+xii. \$1.90.
- McFARLAND, MARGARET B. *Relationships between Young Sisters as Revealed in Their Overt Responses*. Child Development Monographs, No. 23. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xii+230. \$3.50.
- MILLER, DAVID F., and BLAYDES, GLENN W. *Methods and Materials for Teaching Biological Sciences: A Text and Source Book for Teachers in Training and*

- in Service*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+436. \$3.50.
- MOSSMAN, LOIS COFFEY. *The Activity Concept: An Interpretation*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xviii+198. \$1.50.
- MURRAY, JOSEPHINE, and BATHURST, EFFIE G. *Creative Ways for Children's Programs*. New York: Silver Burdett Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+396.
- NOBLE, STUART G. *A History of American Education*. New York: Farrar & Rinehart, Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+440. \$2.50.
- Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education*. Edited by Edwin A. Lee. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. x+476. \$3.50.
- PICKETT, HALE. *An Analysis of Proofs and Solutions of Exercises Used in Plane Geometry Tests*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 747. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 120. \$1.60.
- SCHULTZ, JOSEPH LEMART. *An Analysis of Present Practices in City Attendance Work*. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1938. Pp. xii+188. \$1.50.
- SIMPSON, RAY H. *A Study of Those Who Influence and of Those Who Are Influenced in Discussion*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 748. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 90. \$1.60.
- STANTON, MILDRED B. *Mechanical Ability of Deaf Children*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 751. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. viii+66.
- UPDEGRAFF, RUTH; DAWE, HELEN C.; FALES, EVALINE E.; STORMES, BERNICE E.; and OLIVER, MARY G. *Practice in Preschool Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xvi+408. \$3.00.
- VAN HORN, C. E. *A Preface to Mathematics*. Boston: Chapman & Grimes, Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+124.
- WATERHOUSE, RALPH H. *Training Elementary-School Principals*. Publication No. 39. Akron, Ohio: Akron Board of Education, 1938. Pp. viii+82.
- WATSON, GOODWIN; COTTRELL, DONALD P.; and LLOYD-JONES, ESTHER M. *Redirecting Teacher Education*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. x+106. \$1.35.
- WRIGHTSTONE, J. WAYNE. *Appraisal of Newer Elementary School Practices*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. xiv+222. \$2.25.

BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- Anglo-American Agreement*. Compiled by H. B. Summers. The Reference Shelf, Vol. XII, No. 1. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1938. Pp. 374. \$1.25.
- Appraisal and Abstract of Available Literature on: *The Occupation of the Detective* by Ann Pavan, pp. 8; *The Occupation of the Industrial Chemist* by Samuel Spiegler and Allis Graham, pp. 12; *The Occupation of the Interior Decorator* by Ann Pavan, pp. 12; *The Occupation of the Office Machine Operator* by Samuel Spiegler and Mary Roos, pp. 12; *The Occupation of the Baker* by Sam-

- uel Spiegler, pp. 10; *The Occupation of the Free-Lance Writer* by Zaida Ellis, pp. 12. New York: National Occupational Conference (551 Fifth Avenue), 1938. \$0.10 each.
- ATWOOD, WALLACE W., and THOMAS, HELEN GOSS. *The Earth and Its People: Book III, Nations beyond the Seas*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. viii+352. \$1.56.
- AUSTIN, ALMA H. *The Romance of Candy*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1938. Pp. xx+234. \$2.50.
- BEIGHEY, CLYDE, and SPANABEL, ELMER E. *Economic and Business Opportunities*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1938. Pp. viii+602. \$1.92.
- BENNETT, MARGARET E., and HAND, HAROLD C. *Group Guidance in High School: A Teachers' Manual To Accompany "School and Life," "Designs for Personality," and "Beyond High School."* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. iv+112. \$1.00.
- BETZ, WILLIAM. *Algebra for Today: Second Course*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. xii+518. \$1.36.
- BLACK, NEWTON HENRY. *Laboratory Experiments in Elementary Physics To Accompany Black and Davis' "Elementary Practical Physics."* New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+264. \$1.24.
- BRUNER, HERBERT B., and SMITH, C. MABEL. *Social Studies: Intermediate Grades: Book II*, pp. viii+472, \$1.20; *Book III*, pp. viii+568, \$1.40. New York: Charles E. Merrill Co., 1938.
- CAGE, MABEL VINSON. *Reading in High Gear*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1938. Pp. x+348. \$1.48.
- GAVIAN, RUTH WOOD. *Society Faces the Future*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+656. \$1.96.
- GOLDIN, MYRON R., and LICHTMAN, JOSEPH. *My English Lessons*. New York: Globe Book Co., 1938. Pp. viii+164+4. \$0.96.
- GOODMAN, DAVID. *How To Write*. New York: Globe Book Co., 1938. Pp. x+198+2. \$1.08.
- HAMM, WILLIAM A. *The American People*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. xx+1054+1vi. \$2.20.
- HART, WALTER W. *New Tests and Drills in First Course Algebra*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. 91 tests. \$0.40.
- HOLLOWAY, ELMA. *Unsung Heroes*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938. Pp. xii+332. \$1.20.
- KROEBER, ELSBETH, and WOLFF, WALTER H. *Adventures with Living Things: A General Biology*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. xiv+798. \$1.96.
- LEAVITT, STURGIS E., and STOUDEMIRE, STERLING A. *¡Vamos a leer!* New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1938. Pp. xii+238+1viii. \$1.36.
- MASTERS, ROBERT W., and MASTERS, LILLIAN DECKER. *The Curtain Rises: Plays To Produce*. A Collection of Non-royalty Plays with Complete Production Notes on Staging, Directing, and Acting, Designed Especially for

- High School and Amateur Dramatic Groups. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. x+362. \$1.80.
- MILES, DUDLEY, and POOLEY, ROBERT C. *Teaching Literature*. A Handbook for Use with the "Literature and Life" Series. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1938 (revised). Pp. 248.
- MYER, WALTER E., and COSS, CLAY. *The Promise of Tomorrow: The Long, Sure Road to National Stability, Family Security, and Individual Happiness*. Washington: Civic Education Service, 1938. Pp. xvi+542. \$2.50.
- Poems for Modern Youth*. Edited by Adolph Gillis and William Rose Benét. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1938. Pp. lx+532+xvi. \$1.28.
- REDDICK, DEWITT C. *Journalism and the School Paper*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. viii+342. \$1.48.
- RUGG, HAROLD. *Man and His Changing Society*: Vol. II of the Junior High School Course, *Changing Countries and Changing Peoples: An Introduction to World Geography with Historical Backgrounds*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1938. Pp. xvi+586. \$1.88.
- RUSSELL, DAVID H., KARP, ETTA E., and KELLY, EDWARD I. *Reading Aids through the Grades: Two Hundred and Twenty-five Remedial Reading Activities*. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. vi+90. \$0.75.
- SEWELL, W. E. *Review Course in Algebra*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+146. \$1.20.
- Standard Catalog for High School Libraries: First Supplement (1938) to the Third Edition (1937)*. A Classified List and Dictionary Catalog of 285 Books. Edited by Isabel Monro and Dorothy E. Cook. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1938. Pp. x+130.
- STRATTON, CLARENCE. *When Washington Danced: A Tale of the American Revolution*. Adapted by Gertrude Moderow. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1938. Pp. vi+336. \$1.00.

PUBLICATIONS IN PAMPHLET FORM

- ARNETT, TREVOR. *Trends in Enrolment in State and Endowed Colleges and Universities in the United States from 1928-29 through 1936-37*. Occasional Papers, No. 10. New York: General Education Board (49 West Forty-ninth Street), 1938. Pp. viii+64.
- BURSCHE, CHAS. *Survey of Schoolhousing Adequacy in California Elementary School Districts Not Administered by City Superintendents of Schools*. State Department of Education Bulletin No. 5. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1938. Pp. x+40.
- Field Studies in Certain New Jersey Secondary Schools*. Montclair, New Jersey: Bureau of Field Studies, New Jersey State Teachers College, 1938. Pp. 48.
- Field Studies in Schools and Colleges*. Montclair, New Jersey: Bureau of Field Studies, New Jersey State Teachers College, 1938. Pp. 74.

- Field Studies in a Teachers College: A Description of a Technique for Teacher Training.* Montclair, New Jersey: New Jersey State Teachers College, 1938. Pp. 30.
- HALL, SIDNEY B. *Report of the Legislative Commission.* Washington: National Education Association [1938]. Pp. 16.
- HICKER, H. D. *Survey of Physically Handicapped Children in California.* State Department of Education Bulletin No. 8. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1938. Pp. viii+34.
- JOHNSON, PALMER O., and HARVEY, OSWALD L., with an introduction by DOAK S. CAMPBELL. *The National Youth Administration.* Staff Study No. 13. Prepared for the Advisory Committee on Education. Washington: United States Government Printing Office, 1938. Pp. x+122.
- NEBRASKA STATE TEACHERS ASSOCIATION. Teachers' Pamphlet No. 6, "Suggested Teachers' Meetings for a Developmental Reading Program" by Major Committee on the Improvement of Instruction (Earle W. Wiltse, Chairman), Educational Planning Commission, \$0.25 (mimeographed); Educational Bulletin, Mimeographed Series III, No. 1, "Salaries of Public School Teachers, Nebraska, 1937-38 and 1938-39," by Galen Saylor, pp. 32 (mimeographed), \$0.40. Lincoln, Nebraska: Nebraska State Teachers Association, 1938.
- Occupational Trends in California with Implications for Vocational Education:* IV. Trends in the Distributive Occupations. State Department of Education Bulletin No. 4. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1938. Pp. x+102.
- "Organizing the School Budget." Accounting Circular No. 10. Des Moines, Iowa: State Department of Public Instruction, 1938. Pp. 16 (mimeographed).
- An Overview of the Saginaw Curriculum Program.* Prepared by the Faculty of the Saginaw Public Schools under the Guidance of Chester F. Miller, Superintendent of Schools, and O. I. Frederick, Director of Curriculum Program. Saginaw, Michigan: Saginaw City Schools, 1938. Pp. 92. \$1.00.
- PETERS, CHARLES C. *Abstracts of Studies in Education at the Pennsylvania State College*, Part VIII (1938). Pennsylvania State College Studies in Education, No. 21. State College, Pennsylvania: School of Education, Pennsylvania State College, 1938. Pp. 48.
- Physical Education in Small Rural Schools.* State Department of Education Bulletin No. 2. Sacramento, California: State Department of Education, 1938. Pp. x+76.
- Programs of Studies.* Report of the Committee Appointed To Study High Schools. Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania: Pittsburgh Public Schools, 1938. Pp. 44.
- Psychological Tests and Their Uses.* Review of Educational Research, Vol. VIII, No. 3. Washington: American Educational Research Association of the National Education Association, 1938. Pp. 213-364. \$1.00.

- The Status of Teacher Tenure.* Washington: Committee on Tenure, National Education Association, 1938. Pp. 32. \$0.25.
- STURTEVANT, SARAH M., and REDDICK, VERNA SWISHER. *Recent Books for Deans, Counselors, and Other Personnel Workers: An Annotated Bibliography.* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 12. \$0.20.
- Tenth Annual Report of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, 1937-38.* Edinburgh, Scotland: Scottish Council for Research in Education, 1938. Pp. 26.
- TOWNES, MARY E. *Teaching with Motion Pictures: A Guide to Sources of Information and Materials.* Teachers College Library Contributions, No. 1. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1938. Pp. 26. \$0.25.
- Twenty-fifth Annual Conference on Educational Measurements: Held at Indiana University April 13, 1938.* Bulletin of the School of Education, Indiana University, Vol. XIV, No. 4. Bloomington, Indiana: Bureau of Co-operative Research, School of Education, Indiana University, 1938. Pp. 38. \$0.50.
- UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION PUBLICATIONS:
- Bulletin No. 2, 1937—*Statistics of State School Systems, 1935-36: Being Chapter II of Volume II of the "Biennial Survey of Education in the United States: 1934-36"* (advance pages) by David T. Blose and Henry F. Alves and Others. Pp. vi+126.
- Bulletin No. 7, 1938—*Curriculum Laboratories and Divisions: Their Organization and Functions in State Departments of Education, City School Systems, and Institutions of Higher Education* by Bernice E. Leary. Pp. vi+34.
- Pamphlet No. 83 (1938)—*Handbook for Compiling Age-Grade-Progress Statistics* by David Segel. Pp. iv+32.

al

or

y.

g.

8.

n-

i.

na

ni-

e-

p-

ed

es

ni-

ys-

+

ta-